

The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVII, NUMBER 5

Continuing *The Historical Outlook*

MAY, 1946

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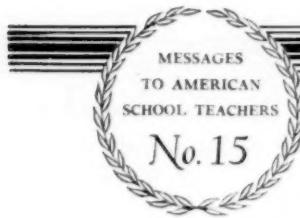
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Commended for Classroom Use by Leading Educators from Coast to Coast

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—**Wayne O. Reed, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Nebraska.**

The Reader's Digest

The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVII, NUMBER 5

MAY, 1946

The Need for a Friendly and Trustworthy Spain

FRANK SHAW GUY

Admiral Farragut Academy, Pine Beach, New Jersey

Twice during this present century the United States has been drawn into European wars when German aggression broke through the western defenses of Europe, invaded the Atlantic Ocean and threatened the defenses of the United States. Although many of us do not realize it, control of the Atlantic Ocean is vital to the defense of the United States and the whole Western Hemisphere. For the continuation of our free way of life it is necessary that the other side of the Atlantic Ocean be held by friendly and trustworthy powers. If part of the eastern shores of the Atlantic Ocean is controlled by an expanding, untrustworthy power, a struggle to determine the master of this great waterway may be inevitable.

For this reason Spain and what goes on in Spain should be of gravest interest to the people of the United States. An unfriendly Spain with its strategic African empire, its cultural influence on South America, or a Spain dominated by an aggressive unfriendly power, could constitute a serious menace to American hemispheric relations.

The Franco dictatorship is a constant threat to democratic stability in the Western Hemisphere but any other aggressive totalitarianism would be just as dangerous. In other words a Spain in which Soviet influence would be dominant would soon lead to the inevitable struggle for the mastery of the Atlantic Ocean.

In America, a public opinion has been formulated which characterizes the Spanish government overthrown by Franco as a democratic government and all Spaniards opposed to Franco as sincere believers in true democracy. In truth, what happened in Spain was a repetition of what happened in Italy and Germany—a democratic regime, undermined by Communism, was supplanted by a revolt of all factions which preferred a dictatorship of the right to one of the left. It was a counter-revolution of the upper classes against the extreme radicalism of the lower.

It is my purpose to present the true picture of the struggle in Spain. In order to do this it is necessary to establish for ourselves the historical background of this disastrous upheaval.

The seed for the present blossoming of radicalism was planted in Spain, as in so many other continental countries, by the legions of Napoleon in the early years of the nineteenth century. These soldiers carried with them to all parts of Europe the extreme liberal policies of the French Revolution. The invasion of Napoleon and the consequent protracted and costly war of independence served to crystallize in Spain bitterly hostile factions of Revolutionaries and Reactionaries.

This fact coupled with the efforts of the Spanish kings and statesmen of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries to exercise a great

world dominion out of all relation to the resources and population of their country rendered inevitable the lapse of Spain into the class of second-rate powers.

Nature, too, handicapped Spain since the poverty of much of the country's soil was a barrier to any phenomenal development of agriculture, and the high mountain ranges which traverse the peninsula militated against commercial progress and growth of industry. Such drawbacks help to explain the constantly large emigration of energetic Spaniards to South America and the relatively small population of Spain itself. The area of Spain is larger than that of Italy yet its population is only half that of Italy.

For the greater part of the nineteenth century, moreover, Spain suffered from abominable governments and a series of civil wars. First, Ferdinand VII (1814-1833), by his absolutism and cruelty lost the bulk of the Spanish colonies in the New World. By setting aside the Bourbon law of inheritance, which prohibited females from succeeding to the throne, and bequeathing the crown of Spain to his daughter, Isabella, Ferdinand left the country the legacy of a civil war, lasting from 1833 until 1840. His brother, Don Carlos, the rightful heir, contested Isabella's succession to the throne.

After putting Don Carlos to flight, Isabella ruled from 1843 until 1868, during which time she succeeded in alienating all the factions of Spain by her attempt to rule despotically and her gross immorality. Republican and radical doctrines spread among the middle and lower classes and there were repeated insurrections of growing intensity until 1868, when a successful revolt sent her fleeing to France and ushered in a seven-year period of anarchy in Spanish government.

A new constitution was adopted guaranteeing individual liberties and religious freedom and providing for a parliamentary monarchy. After much difficulty in securing a king, the second son of King Victor Emanuel II of Italy, Prince Amadeo, accepted the Spanish throne in 1870. His reign was chaotic and shortlived, as he abdicated in disgust after three years in 1873. This gave the Republicans a chance and they were even less successful than the liberal Monarchists. They split into two factions which

resulted in a dictatorship of the army.

After two years (1873-75) of this reign the wearied people welcomed Alfonso XII with open arms. For ten years he strove to conciliate the many factions with some degree of success. He suppressed the last serious Carlist insurrection and managed its supporters and Republican opposition with a firm hand, restricted suffrage to property owners, took steps to reorganize the army, and improved the finances. His untimely death in 1885 brought his unborn son, Alfonso XIII, to the throne under the regency of the Queen mother, Marie Christina. She made concessions to the liberals, but the war of 1898 with the United States definitely displayed the weakness of the government; it was the death blow to Spanish pride and offered an impetus to the growing acrimony among political groups.

Alfonso XIII did not possess the genius of his father and was unable to cope with the growing dissatisfaction of his people. Although he, too, made concessions in the beginning, he unfortunately surrounded himself with advisors who made themselves distasteful to the people, and his sanction of the dictatorship of General Primo de Rivera, in 1923, was the immediate cause of his abdication in 1931.

The dictatorship of General Rivera gave added strength to the radical elements, because all the other political parties were disbanded during his regime. Labor unions and similar organizations were permitted to flourish and they became the hothouses in which Marxist principles were nourished. It was these Socialistic labor organizations that brought about the Revolution of 1931 which resulted in the abdication of the king.

The new Spanish Republic fell heir to all the problems consequent to the overthrow of recognized government, the most important of which was to satisfy the demands of the many political groups which had banded together in the struggle to overthrow the monarchy. The Socialist party, which, as I have said, was the only well-organized and disciplined political party in Spain in 1931, won a larger number of seats in the first Republican Parliament and was given several posts in the Cabinet. Thus they played an important part in the drafting of the new Constitution and were responsible for the radical provisions concerning the Church, religious

education, and the expropriation of property for social purposes. Then they passed the so-called Act for the Defense of the Republic, which enabled the Executive to keep in suspense the provisions of the Constitution concerning freedom of speech, meeting and press, in order to avoid all possible activities contrary to the government.

The Socialists, in power during the first two years (1931-33) of the new regime, found this act a very convenient weapon not only to suppress monarchist activities but also any opposition from the liberal and conservative Republicans. They launched a well-planned campaign of religious persecution and in their frenzy were proud of saying: "Spain is no longer a Christian country."

The elections of 1933, however, showed how far this was from true when a large majority of liberals and conservatives were returned to the Parliament. This new government, a combination of liberals and conservatives, then strove to establish the Spanish Republic after the fashion of the democratic governments of Great Britain and the United States. This resulted in a bloody revolution led by the Socialists, eventually crushed by the government. On this subject it is worth quoting the following paragraph from an article published in the Socialists' newspaper *Advance*:

The proletarians from Asturias, together with their brothers throughout Spain took up arms in October, in order to overthrow a capitalistic government and put in its stead a government of workers. Their aim was by no means to substitute the Republican Government for another Republican Government.

Failing to effect the desired change by revolution the Socialists began to deal with the Communists, Anarchists, and Syndicalists and by the time of the elections of February, 1936, had succeeded in establishing the so-called Popular Front. This election gave a slight majority of seats in Parliament to the Left group, although the Right and Center parties polled about 200,000 votes more than their opponents. This anomaly was due to the different size of the Constituencies, because the Electoral Act, passed by the Socialists in 1931, gave a larger number of seats per number of votes to the

industrial centers. Their victory was celebrated by the Socialists, Communists, and Anarchists in the form of parades headed by the red flag, the burning of churches and newspaper plants and the murder of some priests, nuns and Right leaders.

Now that they were in power again the Left group did not intend to lose that power. They made no effort to conceal the fact that they intended Spain to be ruled forever by the Left group and Leftist policies. Their first step was to grant an amnesty to all political criminals as well as some common criminals. These were generally of the most extreme element. Next they determined to secure a sufficient majority in Parliament to insure the passage of any bill and to make the opposition powerless.

According to the Constitution every new Spanish Parliament had to decide for itself the validity of the election in each constituency. The slight majority of the Left enabled them to declare the elections in those constituencies which returned Right representatives null and void. New elections had to be held and with the help of street-pressure and violence the Leftists succeeded in having their candidates elected.

Then came the turn of the President of the Republic, Alcala Zamora, whom they considered too moderate. He was deposed by Parliament in a fashion that seems to be not in accord with the Spanish Constitution. The leader and premier of the Popular Front, Manuel Azana, was then elected President. Following this wholesale changes were made in all branches of the government, which was called by the Leftists "republicanization" but was merely the placing of Leftists in all civil positions.

Steadily conditions in Spain grew more Red following the appointment of Largo Caballero as premier to succeed Azana. Extreme Leftist pressure made orderly administration impossible and from February to July 1936, 420 churches were burned, 43 newspaper offices destroyed, 393 political centers raided, 113 general strikes and 357 partial strikes. It was at this point that reactionaries of varied types backed the revolt of Franco which brought in the Civil War with excesses on both sides. Hitler and Mussolini intervened on the side of

Franco while Soviet Russia aided the Communist-controlled republican government.

The result of that struggle seems to be a realization by the greater portion of the Spanish people that what they want is not offered by either Right or Left Extremists. They want peace; they want protection and security under law; they want freedom from arbitrary government; they want a guarantee of their basic human rights.

Consequently, if the government of the United States sees fit to take action against the Franco government, it must assume the responsibility of seeing to it that the above mentioned desires of the Spanish people are realized. We must go all out for the restoration of a constitutional government in Spain. For in this way only can we be assured of the friendship and cooperation of that country. And a friendly and trustworthy Spain is necessary for the peace and security of the American continents.

Practice in Formulating Public Opinion

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I

The social studies pupil learns that we have a republican form of government because we elect representatives to carry on the government for us. We, the people, are sovereign. We express our will through elections.

After we elect a President, a governor, a mayor, or a senator, we find that we may not agree with the official on every issue. The ballot has been only a crude estimate of public opinion and it may be merely a matter of preferring one candidate over another. The vote which places a candidate in office does not guide him in all his problems. For example, some of the President's supporters favor his views on military conscription; others do not. Some agree wholeheartedly with him on handling the problems of unemployment; some are lukewarm; others mildly question his program; and still others are irrevocably opposed.

One of the most important forces guiding the course of the public official who has policy-making functions is public opinion. The rough measure of approval or disapproval, of course, comes at election time. But in the meantime how can the official keep his "ear to the ground?" He can rely on any of the following sources of information to contribute toward building up a general picture: advisers, department officials, personal contacts with the public, articles of opinion in periodicals, editorials, the open forum or readers' forum column in periodicals, public opinion polls, lobbies, and the letters he receives from the public.

The teacher of the social studies could well devote some attention to the functioning of democracy by having his pupils participate actively in the expression of opinion. The most direct way is by writing letters. Every thinking individual, perhaps, has advice he would like to offer at some time, but it seems that no one asks for it. Some people volunteer their suggestions or criticisms through the medium of a letter; others just content themselves by discussing problems with their acquaintances or keeping quiet about their opinions.

Since the public generally is not organized concerning measures pertaining to its welfare, various groups having special interests engage in lobbying, perhaps receiving more weight in influence than they are proportionately entitled to at times. Someone has to stand up for the mass of citizenry, whether pro or con. It might as well be the citizens themselves.

II

The exercise which was tried out in the author's civics classes involved practice in writing a letter of opinion to a public official or to some periodical. The pupils were required to select their own subjects. They could actually mail their letters or not, depending upon their preferences, but those who later produced a reply were given additional credit. The aims of the exercise were described as follows: to provide actual experience in formulating public opinion, to select a problem worth writing

about, to organize one's views and arguments about that problem, and to write a clear and effective letter.

Some preliminary attention was given to the readers' forum or open-forum columns of newspapers as one outlet for public opinion. The letters printed there constitute interesting reading. Some are intelligent; others are stupid. Some are sincere; others are written by "cranks." Some are clear; others foggy or pointless. Some follow reasonable standards of language; others appear to be written by people who lack an adequate foundation of grammar. For those who wished to write for the public in general, the newspaper was suggested as the place to send the letter. If a particular official was concerned, it was deemed preferable to send it directly to him.

Three types of approach were suggested. First is the letter that praises some public official for his past good efforts. No doubt, as he goes over his daily mail and reads all the complaints, it must be gratifying for him to know that someone has made an effort to say something good. This type might suggest a continuation of a general policy in opposition to the clamor for change.

Second, there is the letter that does the opposite. It criticizes the efforts of the official.

A third type is the message that suggests some possible reform as a future line of approach. It might urge the support, or disapproval, of an impending act.

Here are some suggestions that were offered the pupils:

1. Let any criticism be constructive, rather than destructive. If you tear down some proposal, do not just say that you oppose it. Give concrete reasons.

2. Be respectful, not venomous, in presenting your case. Remember that there is another side to the issue—and there is support for it. Everyone who favors the opposite view need not be ignorant. It is unnecessary to say; "If you support this, you will have the backing of many public-spirited citizens." There are public-spirited citizens on both sides of every public issue.

3. It is not necessary to use the following identification tags unless you feel it would add weight to your opinions: "I am a student at

North High School." "I am 18 years old." "I am a citizen of the United States." "I am a resident of Minneapolis."

4. Do not start by saying: "I am writing this letter to _____." Leave out unnecessary wordage. Avoid repetition. Be brief. Be clear. Read your letter aloud upon finishing to see if it sounds as good as you think, or if it conveys the meaning you have in mind.

5. Be sure any opinions you give are supported. Do not say: "Most people believe—" unless you have evidence. This holds true for "Military records show—" and "According to scientific data—." If you quote, be sure to do so accurately. Evaluate your own opinion. Is it based upon fact or rumor or prejudice?

6. Do not ask for an answer.

7. Sign your correct name and address. If you are too ashamed of your opinion to do this, don't write the letter. If you have not the courage to support your views, do not speak out.

8. Consider how you would react to the letter if you were a senator, mayor, chief of police, or other public official and you were the one receiving it.

9. Since your letter goes out of the school into the adult world, it ought to be a product that combines the best your education has to offer. The recipient will not know what marks you got in English and civics. He will judge you by the grammar that you use. He will observe errors in punctuation. He might be amused or irritated by your misspelled words. He will judge the quality of your preparation on public affairs by your views and reasons. He will judge your ability to clinch your case and convince him. This is a challenge for you to take seriously the problems of life—international, national, state, or local.

III

Although some pupils originally exhibited slight bewilderment at the nature of the assignment, nearly all joined with great interest in the challenge of thinking and in actually expressing themselves on a problem. The final products were read to the class by the teacher, with the names of the senders omitted. This proved to have additional value for purposes of comparison and in obtaining suggestions by other members for improvement.

Truth and Fiction About William Penn's Treaty With the Indians

MAXINE MATHEWS

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According to popular opinion, in November, 1682, William Penn made a "Great Treaty" with the Indians at Shackamaxon, in Philadelphia, under the spreading branches of an ever memorable elm tree which was then a veteran of the forest. The famous tree "continued to live in vigorous health to the age of two hundred eighty-three years." Alas in 1810 it was uprooted by a violent storm. The sacred spot where the tree stood and the treaty was made is now marked by a monument placed there in 1827 by the Pennsylvania Historical Society.

No doubt this opinion has been formed chiefly from Benjamin West's famous painting and its numerous reproductions, from certain quotations by Voltaire, from over-enthusiastic patriots of Pennsylvania, and from verses penned by members of the Society of Friends, and others. Even so-called historians have not hesitated to do it "justice." Innumerable insurance calendars and "countless tons of American medical almanacs for gratuitous distribution" have done their part in popularizing notions which so far are not supported by historical evidence.

Voltaire's statements while probably not wholly untrue helped to glorify Penn's dealing with the Indians in such a way as to give artists and poets further material from which to draw in creating imaginative accounts. Voltaire's observation was that Penn's Treaty with the Indians was "the only treaty between savages and Christians that was never sworn to and that was never broken."

Bancroft's description of the "forest now leafless by the frost's of autumn," and Hannah F. Gould's lines:

"Thou'lt find," said the Quaker, "in me and mine,
But friends and brothers to thee and to thine."

And bright was the spot where the Quaker came

To leave his hat, his drab, his name
That will sweetly sound from the trump of Fame

Till its final blast shall die,

are other examples of numerous foundations upon which the legend has been built.

Benjamin West's painting is the chief source "for the growth of the treaty myth." Historically speaking the picture is all wrong. Penn is represented as "fat, short, and old," and dressed in clothes "not worn until nearly a half century afterward." This painting was made in 1771 for Thomas Penn, the son of William Penn. In 1851 Joseph Harrison bought the picture in London from the Penn heirs. At his death it was bequeathed to the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, and has been reproduced with the permission of the Academy as one of a series of twelve subjects illustrating American life.

The painting became vastly popular, with reproductions in England, Scotland, Ireland, France, Germany, Mexico, as well as in the United States. All kinds of variations were introduced. The Quakers revered the picture to such an extent that many families had a print of it on the walls of their homes. Later it was put on "dishes, candles, screens, handpainted trays, bed curtains, window curtains, whiskey glasses, and iron plates."

A revival of interest in West's painting occurred in the Christmas season of 1940 when an insurance company used a copy on its calendar, a publishing company sent out gift subscription cards on which a print of the painting was an outstanding feature, and a department store engraved the picture on its merchandise bonds. One can readily believe that this was done for peace propaganda, since World War II had just begun.

As a work of art, West's painting has merit. As a historical document, it is of little value. Living in London at the time he made the painting, he had only boyhood memories of the landscape, and no help from research libraries concerning life of the period. His ideas of the early Quaker garb "became distorted by what he currently saw worn." The houses shown were not in existence in 1682 and were in the course of erection at the time West was painting the picture ninety years later. Penn did not wear the Quaker garb represented by West. The Pennsylvania Historical Society has in its possession a blue silk sash said to be the original worn by Penn.

Concerning the persons supposed to have been portrayed in the painting, the Academy of Fine Arts in Philadelphia has two letters written by West, one to his brother, William, in Pennsylvania, July 12, 1775; the other of February 2, 1805 to W. Darton. West admitted that he had made every "enquire" [sic] to obtain portraits of those who accompanied the distinguished "Father," but without effect. He had access to a medallion of William Penn made in wax by Silvinius Bevan and he drew further details concerning "Penn's Person" from the description given him by his father. He put his own father and half-brother into the picture. He frankly stated that his great object was to show how savages might be brought into harmony and peace by justice. Undoubtedly, West took an "artist's privilege in making an attractive and popular picture out of what was supposed to have happened ninety years earlier."

Writers and biographers have passed on the legend. Horace J. Smith gave to five of the men in the painting names of persons early associated with Pennsylvania history. Among them are James Logan, Thomas Lloyd, Thomas Story, and the father of Benjamin West. This legend was printed later on the advertising sheet, thus adding to the confusion concerning the truth.

Thomas Clarkson, a Quaker of England and a writer of books on Pennsylvania and Quaker history, must bear a large share of the blame for passing on a picturesque story told to him by West in his old age. The description of the treaty as given by Clarkson agreed "as to ex-

ternals" with West's picture, and "savour[s] something more of the brush of the painter than of the pen of the historian. Brinton says the first "full-length" biography of Penn was written by Clarkson and published in London in 1813. It is based on West's painting and on descriptions as he gave them to Clarkson. Quaker writers repeated the Clarkson version, some elaborately amplifying, and others boldly denying the whole tale.

W. L. Weems published a life of Penn in 1822 in Philadelphia. Knowing his reputation as a historian from the cherry tree story which he inserted in his work on the life of Washington, we are not surprised to learn that he was equally skillful in dealing with Penn. He went so far as to list in detail all the items supposed to have been given to the Indians at the time the transaction took place. His list included twenty guns, one hundred bars of lead, forty pairs of stockings, one hundred jew's harps, thirty gimlets, one barrel of beer, five gallons of molasses—to the total of \$515.50.

Discrepancies in accounts of the treaty are numerous among writers. The date is variously stated. One author boldly places it on October 14, 1682; another says it occurred in 1682, but cautiously avoids mentioning the month. Another allows "the treaty the liberty of the entire year," while still others "give the readers the privilege of dating it to suit themselves, at any time between the destruction of Babylon and the completion of the Washington Monument." Howard W. Jenkins places the date as 1683. The date given for the treaty in books and in pictures actually varies from 1661 to 1686. Samuel Adams Drake states that the treaty made in 1682 was not made by Penn but by William Markham, the leader of the expedition of the first emigration. He thinks Penn's meeting was not until the next year. Doyle places the event in 1683 on June 23; Fisher, in June 1683; as do Bolton and Marshall, and Jernegan. Channing, however, thinks it is impossible "to identify any one of the transactions" as Penn's Treaty with the Indians, since he made many treaties "for purchases of land." The monument now standing on the supposed spot where the treaty was made bears on its north side the inscription,

"Treaty Ground of William Penn and the Indian Nation, 1682. Unbroken Faith." Bancroft seems more or less sure of the tribe and the message of the treaty, stating that "Penn proclaimed to the men of the Algonquin race from both banks of the Delaware, from the border of the Schuylkill, and it may have been from the Susquehanna," the same message of love and peace which George Fox "had professed before Cromwell."

Writers also disagree as to whether land was bought at the meeting so famed in legend, or whether it was only an expression of undying love, peace, and friendship between Penn and the Indians. Max Savelle says at the "semi-legendary" meeting, Penn bought the land included in his grant from the king, and that this was the first of a series of meetings "which cemented the good relations already established by the Dutch and Swedes." The same author adds: "report has it [that Penn] ate hominy and acorns" with the Indians and "then entered running and jumping contests with them in which he performed better than any of the Indians."

There is some difference of opinion as to the place of the meeting. Chester and various points have been suggested. The greater number, however, fix the spot as that marked by the monument at what is today Kensington in Philadelphia. Neither is it exactly known what tribes were represented. The Lenape, the Minogoes, and the Shawnees are mentioned. Hildreth says treaties were made with "branches of the Leni-Lenape, or Delaware Confederacy."

Many writers give the exact words which were spoken by Penn: "We meet on the broad pathway of good faith and good will. . . . I will not call you children, for parents sometimes chide their children too severely, nor brothers only, for brothers differ. . . . We are the same as if one man's body was to be divided into two parts: we are all one flesh and blood." Bryant and Gay report that when the sachem put on "the chaplet with the horn," the natives threw down their arms as a signal that the "place was inviolate." Then Penn distinguished by a blue sash told the Indians that "every thought of the heart was to live above," that the desire of his own heart was to live "in perpetual amity with them," and "that he and his friends came unarmed because they never used weapons."

There are no contemporary accounts of the treaty. No historical record of what was said and done, of where it was held, or when, was made at the time. Thomas Sergeant, President of the Pennsylvania Historical Society in 1857 stated: "This treaty not having been reduced to writing in the usual form, its existence and nature became subjects of doubt and disputation." If one uses our present day meaning of the word "treaty," it would naturally be expected that the parties exchanged written agreements, and these would have been preserved somewhere; or some memorandum of the event would have been made by the witnesses. No such papers have yet been brought to light from the files of the Penn family, from the English government, from the Archives of Pennsylvania, or from the libraries of historical societies.

The Historical Society of Pennsylvania has done the most notable research thus far made in the matter. Scholars have based their conclusions mainly on the fact that harmony long followed the arrival of Penn. This "brought a feeling which if not recorded on paper was deeply implanted in the breasts of both parties." Excerpts from Penn's letters written in 1681 to 1683, expressing love and friendship for the Indians, and particularly his letter to the Society of Friends in which he described conferences with the Indians, are the chief sources of information. In none is there a mention of a definite treaty at Shackamaxon, although according to Doyle, the letter to the Society of Friends, resting in a public office in Harrisburg, is endorsed: "Minutes of the Indian Conference in relation to the Great Treaty made with William Penn at the Big Tree Shackamaxon on the 14th of the tenth month 1682." The persistent stories concerning a parchment record given by Penn to the Indians remain merely rumors.

At the Historical Society of Pennsylvania is a belt of wampum which is supposed to have been delivered by the Indians to William Penn at the time the treaty was made. This was the Indian way of confirming the pact attested by Penn in the parchment. The belt was presented to the Historical Society by John Granville Penn in 1857, when a grand ceremony was

held. It was explicitly stated that "the belt of wampum [was] presented by the Indian chiefs to the founder of Pennsylvania" when the Great Treaty "was made at Shackamaxon in 1682." It is claimed that this belt is different from those used by Indians on more ordinary occasions. The figures and designs delineated in dark colored beads on the white background of eighteen strings have given rise to various interpretations. The two figures clasping hands are said to represent an Indian and William Penn.

The Historical Society of Pennsylvania appointed a committee to make a special study of Penn's treaty and report on any facts which it might find. The result was the publication in 1836 of a thirty-six page pamphlet by Peter S. DuPonceau and J. Francis Fisher. They examined records and accounts of early Pennsylvania both in this country and in England in an attempt to secure the basic facts about the treaty.

The results of this study unfortunately throw very little new light on the matter or leave us any more certain concerning the facts. The report indicated that before William Penn arrived in this country his commissioners at various times purchased land from the Indians. He himself arrived at Newcastle, Delaware, October 27, 1682, and at Upland (now Chester), Pennsylvania three days later. Since it was unlikely that Penn could have arranged a formal meeting until some time later, the committee fixed the date in November 1682, and called it a treaty of amity and friendship.

There is no evidence that a formal treaty was made as has been pictured by West and stated by numerous writers. The committee for the Historical Society pointed out that such a treaty as West portrayed was not made with North American Indians. It stated that no one need ever expect to find a parchment roll of this treaty. Had the treaty been a single important event, a narrative would be found somewhere in early Quaker writings, it concluded. Moreover, it stressed the fact that the first biography of Penn, published in 1726, and edited by Joseph Besse, gives no detail about the treaty. Clarkson's work, so widely used, is wholly unreliable.

There is more and better evidence to fix the

date in 1683. In 1882 an article by the librarian of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, Frederick D. Stone, on the subject, "Did the Treaty With the Indians Take Place in 1682 or in 1683?" was printed in the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*. Stone's conclusion was that the "first recorded meeting between Penn and the Indians took place in May, 1683," although he evidently was not certain as to the month. Stone thought there was as much reason to believe that the treaty was made at Shackamaxon as there is to believe that the Pilgrims first set foot on Plymouth Rock. Stone based his evidence on Penn's letter to the Free Society of Traders, dated August 16, 1683. He was therefore inclined to fix the date as of May or June, 1683. He pointed out that while there was scarcely any allusion to the Indians prior to his meeting with them on June 23, 1683, subsequent to that date, Penn's letters "are full of descriptions of them."

Sydney George Fisher says two purchases of land were made in June 1683, and one in July of the same year. He states: "It was probably the one on June 23, which has aroused the tradition on which so much imagination has been expended." Fisher thinks that Penn thought nothing of the matter at the time since it was his practice always to deal fairly with the Indians.

We must conclude that the usual description of the treaty as a formal function is pure imagination and fiction. Sydney George Fisher says the speech usually assigned to Penn on the occasion is "now known to have been made twenty years afterward." If such a treaty were made it was merely a business transaction in the purchase of land, like many that were made about that period and afterwards. The Indians retained a tradition of a treaty of some sort with Penn, or rather of promises he had made which he always kept. Such promises are mentioned in Penn's letter to the Society of Free Traders of August 16, 1683, mentioned above. In this letter Penn referred to a purchase that was made and of great promises between himself and the Indians of "kindness and good neighborhood," that the "Indians and English must live in love as long as the sun gave light."

Tradition has fused various conferences that

Penn must have had with the Indians into one great treaty under the elm at Shackamaxon. Perhaps some day some one may find records which will make this tradition history. Until then we will have to call it a legend.

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The Submarine in the Revolution and Civil War

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Submarine navigation, which we are apt to think of as strictly modern, has, for centuries, occupied the thought and action of man with a fascination that precluded any giving up until a practical solution was reached. To Cornelius Van Drebel, a Dutch physician, goes the honor of the first practical undersea boat, for in 1620 he built and launched a navigable submarine. From Van Drebel's time, submarine navigation went on apace, and hardly a year passed without some scheme, practical or otherwise, appearing in some part of the world. The best of these enjoyed only indifferent success, although they presented to the world many novel and original ideas.

Americans, too, from about the time of the Revolution, found submarine navigation an absorbing subject. During the war for independence there appeared what was, in some respects, the most successful submarine up to that time. A young Yale student, David Bushnell, even before the war, had begun to experiment with exploding charges of powder be-

neath the water. These experiments proved so successful that Bushnell turned to planning some means of using his process as an offensive weapon against ships. Perhaps the Revolution, and our small navy, helped focus attention on Bushnell's work. In any event, he succeeded in interesting some Connecticut officials in his plans for a submarine. Under their direction, he began to construct a submarine to be used against British warships.

Bushnell's completed craft presented some remarkable features. In external appearance it resembled two upper tortoise shells of equal size, set edge to edge. This odd-shaped appearance led to its name—*Turtle*. The wooden hull—its seams caulked—was bound together with bands of iron and completely tarred. Inside there was a strong wooden brace across the boat, which served to resist the water pressure and to seat the operator. The entrance at the top was completely encircled by a wide band of iron, the lower edge set in the

hull. On this was hinged a brass cover, which when closed, shut watertight on the iron band. In the crown, or the iron band, were small doors to provide air when the craft was on the surface, and windows to provide light and to enable the operator to see. Extending through the crown were two pipes. Through one of these a ventilator drew fresh air into the bottom of the boat, thus forcing out the exhausted air through the other. These pipes were equipped with very unusual safety valves which closed them when water rose near the tops of them. When completely submerged, the vessel contained enough air for about thirty minutes.

Submerging was accomplished by letting water into a compartment at the bottom of the boat. To surface, the operator forced out the water by using two pumps. The *Turtle* was equipped with two sets of paddles or propellers, one directly in front of the operator, the other at the top of the craft.¹ By turning the paddle in front in one direction, the operator could move, or pull, the ship forward, and by reversing the direction could move, or push, it backward. This enabled it to move in still water about five miles per hour. The top propeller, when rotated in one direction, assisted the ship to submerge, and reversed, helped it to come to the surface. At the rear of the vessel was a rudder to enable the operator to steer.

The offensive weapon of the ship was one of Bushnell's underwater mines. The placement of this mine beneath the bottom of a ship was a complicated process. At the top of the crown there was a socket with an iron tube through it. This upright tube moved up or down about six inches. At the top of the tube was a drill, or wood screw, fixed to the top by a rod passing through the tube. From this screw a rope ran to the magazine carried over the rudder. To fix the magazine, the operator pushed the tube upward against the bottom of the ship and turned it so as to sink the screw firmly into the planks. Then it was cast off by unscrewing the rod which held it fast to the tube. When the drill was cast off, the magazine was also set free, leaving it, attached to the screw, to float

against the hull of the ship. Inside the magazine there was a clock device which timed the explosion for any time up to twelve hours.²

When Bushnell finished the submarine, he found that a person needed a great deal of training to operate it. His brother Ezra became very proficient in handling it,³ but just previous to the planned attack on British shipping he fell ill. Bushnell then appealed to the army for a few men to assist him. He trained one of the assigned men, Sergeant Ezra Lee, to operate the vessel.

After Lee became expert in handling the ship, it was determined to make an attempt on the British fleet. Consequently the vessel was shipped to New York, where the fleet was anchored. Late one night Bushnell and one of the assistants towed Lee as far toward the fleet as they dared and then cast him adrift to make his way toward the *Eagle*, a sixty-four gun ship. Lee was carried past the man-of-war by a strong ebb tide and had to struggle some two and a half hours to make his way back. Upon nearing the ship, he dived under the bottom and attempted to work the wood screw into the planking. To his chagrin he was unable to do this, partly because he could not apply enough pressure to the screw, and partly because of the copper sheathing on the hull of the ship. Lee attempted to find a better place, but in moving forward, the submarine surfaced and he was in great danger of discovery. He considered making another descent for a second trial, but approaching day, which would make escape very difficult, made him change his mind.

A few nights later, Lee made another attempt on a ship in the North River. In trying to fasten the magazine to the stern of the ship he was discovered and forced to leave. He tried to get under the ship, but went too deep, and so was compelled to abandon the effort. This ended Lee's trips in the submarine.

A short time later, in consequence of the Continental army's retreat from New York, Bushnell placed the submarine on a ship and retreated up the Hudson. The ship was pur-

² Letter from Bushnell to Thomas Jefferson, Oct. 7, 1787, *Transactions of American Philosophical Society*, IV, p. 311.

³ Henry Howe, *Memoirs of American Mechanics*, p. 139.

¹ Charles Griswold, "Submarine Navigation", *American Journal of Science*, II (April, 1820), p. 97.

sued by the British and sunk. The submarine was thus lost. Although the *Turtle* was later recovered, ill-health and lack of funds compelled Bushnell to forego further submarine experiments. He did, however, continue his torpedo experiments.

Here, then, we find the first American instance of a submarine used in war. The young government was not in a position to devote time and money to develop this weapon further. Although a few Americans, notably Robert Fulton, experimented with submarines in the years following the Revolution, it was not until the Civil War that great interest was aroused in undersea boats in the United States.

The Civil War, in addition to introducing many modern methods of warfare, is noted for its various submarine exploits and trials. This was particularly true of the South. The Confederacy, lacking a navy, and gradually being strangled by the Northern blockade, was a fertile field for experiments in submarine and torpedo warfare. It was here that most effort along these lines was expended. But oddly enough, the first submarine of the war was a Northern product.

In 1859, Brutus de Villeroi, a French engineer, came to Philadelphia to build a submarine for salvage purposes. To this project few gave any attention until after the outbreak of the war. Then, someone drew the attention of the police to the strange vessel. Fearing a plot against the navy yard, they seized the submarine. Villeroi had hoped to interest the naval authorities in his boat and it would seem that the police unwittingly helped him accomplish his purpose. The attendant publicity enabled him to consult with the commander of the yard as to the possibility of using the submarine as an instrument of war. The yard commander appointed a committee of officers to examine it with a view toward some military use. This committee turned in a rather favorable report in July, 1861.

According to the findings of the board, the ship was about thirty-three feet long, about four feet at its greatest diameter, and was propelled by a screw in the stern. Some process to generate an "artificial atmosphere" was installed in the ship which seemed able to remain submerged for some time. The board concluded

that the boat could be raised or lowered at will; that the crew could leave or return without the boat coming to the surface; that a man could leave the boat and live by means of tubes attached to the ship; that the boat could be navigated at a speed of about one mile per hour beneath the surface; that it was possible for a diver to hitch "some means of destruction" to it and return safely; and that it might be used for examining the bottom of lakes and rivers and raising the cargoes of sunken vessels.⁴

This report was turned over to Gideon Welles, Secretary of the Navy, who in turn, sent it to the Chief of the Bureau of Docks and Yards. After much delay, he turned in a mildly enthusiastic report recommending a larger boat be constructed so that more might be learned about it.⁵ Accordingly, a contract was entered into with Villeroi to construct a larger submarine. The actual contract was turned over to a Philadelphia shipbuilding concern. Near completion, the work was held up by some misunderstanding in the contracts about the air purification machinery.⁶ The whole matter was delayed for some weeks, but finally, only partially completed inside, it was launched in April, 1862.

This submarine depended on eight pairs of oars for motive power on, and below, the sea. These oars consisted of a blade of two pieces, opening and closing like a book, and attached at the juncture to a rod. This rod was connected to a crank designed to be worked backward and forward by hand. The vessel, forty-six feet in length, six feet in depth, and about four and a half feet abeam, carried a crew of sixteen men and a commander. Submersion and surfacing were taken care of by water tanks, helped by horizontal fins which also provided stability for the vessel.⁷

After a successful launching and trial, the vessel was towed from Philadelphia to Hampton Roads for use. Goldsborough, the com-

⁴ Louis Balandier, "The Alligator—First Federal Submarine of the Civil War", *United States Naval Institute Proceedings* (June, 1938), p. 848.

⁵ J. S. Barnes, *Submarine Warfare*, p. 152.

⁶ *United States Naval Institute Proceedings* (June, 1938), p. 850.

⁷ For a complete description see *United States Naval Institute Proceedings* (June, 1938), p. 857, or Alan Burgoyne, *Submarine Navigation*, Vol. I, p. 17.

mander there, seemed to think little of the strange craft and made no immediate use of it.⁸ Welles ordered him to use it, if possible, to blow up the Petersburg Bridge in the Appomattox River. Goldsborough then equipped the ship and sent it to Commander John Rodgers of the river squadron. Rodgers kept it for four days. He concluded, without trying, that it was useless for his purpose, and returned it to Goldsborough. Subsequently the submarine was sent back to the Washington yard.⁹

In the meantime, Villeroi disappeared, leaving no information as to the secret process of purifying the air in the ship. For some reason the government was unable to locate him, or to force the builders to install the necessary machinery. If either of these things had been done, it is possible that the United States might have had a formidable weapon, for all the examining boards seemed to think highly of it.

The submarine, now known as the *Alligator*, remained in the navy yard at Washington for some time. Eventually it was despatched to Hampton Roads but while being towed there it ran into a very heavy storm. To protect it, the towing vessel pulled alongside and made it fast. This made the towing ship list badly, and the submarine was still in danger of swamping. Consequently the commander ordered the *Alligator* cut loose. It sank quickly, and the career of the only submarine launched by the Federal government during the war was ended.¹⁰

The first submarine built in the South during the war was not a government enterprise. In 1862 James R. McClinton and Baxter Wilson constructed a small submarine, the *Pioneer*, at New Orleans. The vessel was small—about four tons—with an overall length of thirty-four feet and a diameter of about four feet. After some partially successful trials on Lake Pontchartrain¹¹ the owners, who intended it for a privateer, applied to the Confederate government for letters of marque.¹² Accord-

ingly, it was commissioned as a privateer with John Scott as master.¹³ Its career as a privateer, however, does not excite comment—it never existed. It failed to live up to the ambitious expectations of its owners and quietly sank shortly after being commissioned. Perhaps the *Pioneer's* greatest claim to fame rests in the fact that it was the forerunner of another Confederate submarine, the *Hunley*.

With the fall of New Orleans to Farragut's fleet, the enthusiastic submarine builders were forced to shift their operations to Mobile. There they were joined by W. A. Alexander, of the Confederate army, who was constantly associated with Confederate submarines from that time. Alexander was detached temporarily to work on ordnance. Another convert to the submarine cause was the owner of the Mobile yard where the ship was built. His close association is apparent; the submarine bore his name, Hunley. The ambitious efforts of this group were crowned with success; at least they launched a submarine at Mobile. Unfortunately, immediately after the launching, it sank, while under tow, and could not be recovered.

Such setbacks might have discouraged less persistent men, but this group quickly laid plans for a third boat. Material for building vessels was scarce in the South, so of necessity, an old cylinder boiler, twenty-five feet long and four feet wide, was used for the hull of the third submarine.¹⁴ The boiler was cut in half from end to end and pieced with a one foot strap of iron, riveted in place. At either end pieces shaped like a rounded wedge were fitted. These served as ballast tanks for regulating buoyancy, and were connected to hand pumps operated from the hull. Two small hatches, fore and aft, contained deadlights to enable the operators to see when the vessel was awash. The covers of these hatches were fitted with gaskets and could be screwed down tightly.

Originally a torpedo was towed back of the ship, which was to dive under the attacked vessel, pull the torpedo into place, and then fire it by means of a cord from a reel to the right

⁸ *Official Records of the Union and Confederate Navies*, Series I, Vol. VII, p. 488.

⁹ *Ibid.*, VII, pp. 494, 499, 540.

¹⁰ For a series of illustrations and plans of the *Alligator* see *United States Naval Institute Proceedings* (June, 1938), pp. 843-844.

¹¹ *Ibid.* (May, 1942), p. 663.

¹² *Official Records of the Union and Confederate Navies*, Series II, Vol. I, p. 399.

¹³ *Ibid.*, Series I, Vol. 1, p. 818.

¹⁴ W. A. Alexander, "The Heroes of the *Hunley*," *Munsey's Magazine*, XXIX, (Aug., 1903), p. 746.

of the forward hatch.¹⁵ At the stern, on either side of the hull, was a pair of diving fins, operated from the forward hatch. The ship was equipped with a propeller attached to a crank-shaft which ran the length of the hull along the right wall. Opposite, along the left wall, were positions for eight men to operate the cranks. The crew, because of the limited space inside, used both hatches, half in or out of one, and half using the other. The last man in the forward hatch was the commander, who stood in the hull with his head in the conning tower. The last man of the crew in the after hatch also manned one of the cranks, but in casting off, submerging or rising, he left the crank and was stationed at the controls in the hatch. There he was chiefly responsible for operation of the flood valves and the pumps.

The commander had a choice of two ways to submerge the ship. First, he could start ahead using the cranks, flood the tanks until the hatches were barely out of water, then drive the submarine down with the diving planes. Second, he could sink the boat to the desired level by flooding the tanks, and hold it there by inclining the planes slightly. The second method was chiefly used, for it was far easier on the crew. The ship was rather unwieldy, and had such slight buoyancy that even a small swell made her dangerous unless the hatches were closed.¹⁶

The first trials of the *Hunley* ended disastrously. After one dive, the vessel failed to rise, and the entire crew was lost. The submarine was salvaged with some difficulty and sent to General Beauregard at Charleston. When refitted, it was turned over to Lieutenant John Payne who had volunteered to take command. A volunteer crew was recruited and preparations were made for testing the vessel. Just as it was ready to cast off, a swell from a passing steamer washed down the still open hatches. It sank at the dock. All aboard, with the exception of Payne, were drowned.

Again the *Hunley* was raised, and again Payne volunteered to take it out with a new crew. This test turned out little better than

¹⁵ *United States Naval Institute Proceedings* (May, 1942), p. 665.

¹⁶ Harry Von Kolnitz, "The Confederate Submarine", *United States Naval Institute Proceedings* (Oct., 1937), pp. 1453-1457. See for complete construction details of the *Hunley*.

the previous two. While trying to cast off a line from a towing vessel, Payne became entangled in the rope. In struggling to free himself, he knocked a prop from under the diving rudder. The rudder, which had been set to hold the bow up, quickly inclined to dive position, and the submarine went under with wide open hatches. It sank so quickly that only Payne and three of the crew managed to escape. The experience ended Payne's work with the submarine—and small wonder.

Once more the vessel was raised and brought to dock. Immediately another crew volunteered for service under the command of Hunley and Thomas Parks. These two, the builders of the boat, set out to train the crew thoroughly. Under their direction the crew practiced diving and surfacing until they had attained a fair degree of proficiency. On October 5, 1863, the *Hunley*, out for a practice run, went down in a dive—and stayed down. When it was once again raised the cause of her failure was apparent; the bow had stuck in the mud, and in an effort to make her come up, Hunley must have ordered the ballast tanks pumped out. The stern tanks were emptied, but the bow pump was found slightly out of adjustment—perhaps done by Hunley in the dark—and evidently would not force out the water from the ballast tank. As a result, the stern floated free, and the submarine assumed a thirty degree angle, with its nose still stuck in the mud. When it was raised, the two hatches opened very easily. Inside, Hunley and Parks stood with hands over their heads. They had managed to unfasten the hatches, but they were unable to raise them against the tremendous pressure of the water.¹⁷

During all these trials the work and attendant disasters had been kept secret. It was, perhaps, just as well, for public opinion certainly would have been against any device which had already claimed over thirty lives. In spite of the secrecy the reputation of the *Hunley* had spread, but there was no lack of volunteers for its operation. The general feeling of those most closely associated with it was that it had been proved capable by Hunley's crew, and except for an unfortunate, simple ac-

¹⁷ *United States Naval Institute Proceedings*, (May, 1942), p. 666.

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incident, would still be under his command. Immediately after the *Hunley* was raised for a fourth time, Lieutenant George Dixon, of the Alabama artillery, and W. A. Alexander of the same regiment, offered to operate it.

The new crew laid plans for an attack on the Federal blockading fleet. As the ironclads of the inner line were guarded by chains and booms against torpedo attack, it was decided to aim at sinking one of the outer line of wooden ships. Specifically, the *Wabash*, twelve miles out, was selected as the objective. To accomplish the attack, however, the *Hunley* needed practically made-to-order conditions. It had to go out with the ebb tide and come back on the flood; the night had to be dark, with not more than a very light breeze blowing. All this was necessary because the submarine could make no headway at all in rough weather.

Each day the crew put in two hours practice and each night after dark put out for the marked ship. They would operate the submarine until the tide, sea, wind, moon, daylight, or exhaustion forced them back to base. For three and a half months, at least four nights a week, the *Hunley* prowled, but never in that time did the elements permit a run of more than seven or eight miles. Even then, it was often exceedingly difficult to return safely.

During these runs the crew found that they could remain submerged about two and a half hours without any extra oxygen supply. The torpedo arrangement was also changed in this period. The bow of the vessel was equipped with a twenty foot spar to which a torpedo was attached. This torpedo was designed to be driven into the side of a ship and held there, without exploding, by a saw-tooth arrangement. The submarine could then back off a hundred yards or so and fire the torpedo by an attached lanyard, thus protecting itself from the force of the explosion.

On February 17, 1864, the *Hunley* left its berth for the nightly attempt on the fleet. Just before her departure Alexander received orders for some special duty and was not on the ship. This order, although not to his liking, was responsible for his being alive to write an account of the *Hunley*. The long awaited moment was at hand. For once, all the conditions of wind, weather and tide favored the daring

crew, and they soon found themselves outside the inner fleet and headed for a new Federal ship, the *Housatonic*. The *Hunley* was but a bare hundred yards off the blockading ship before the deck officer discovered the strange attacker. His hail unanswered, he ordered the cable slipped and the ship to be backed. It was too late, for Dixon closed in and rammed the torpedo against the side of the *Housatonic*. A minute later a tremendous explosion blew a gaping hole in the *Housatonic*. Within four minutes she sank, settling in shallow water. Thus her yards and masts were still out of water and all the crew, with the exception of five men, saved themselves by clinging to them.¹⁸ In the darkness and confusion no one noticed the *Hunley* and it was presumed that the submarine had escaped.

When the *Hunley* failed to reappear in three days, the Confederates believed it lost. It remained for the end of the war to prove what had actually happened on the night of the attack. The war over, Charleston harbor was cleared of wreckage. While working on the *Housatonic*, divers discovered the *Hunley* about a hundred feet off. Exactly what happened no one, of course, knows, but the explosion which sank the *Housatonic* finished the *Hunley* too.¹⁹

So ended the career of the *Hunley*. One could call it a successful submarine, inasmuch as it did accomplish its purpose. In the main, its career was largely an expression of effort to better a desperate military situation.

The partial success of the *Hunley*, and semi-submersible boats, spurred the South to new activity along these lines. Reports constantly reached the Navy and War Departments of the building of these ships. One of these reported submarines was the *Saint Patrick*. In November, 1864, the Secretary of War received information that a submarine had been built at Selma, Alabama and then sent to Mobile. About thirty feet long, this boat was propelled by steam on the surface, and by hand beneath; it carried a five-man crew. It was built by a man named Halligan, who took it to Mobile. Evidently, Halligan was a better builder than a naval officer, for on December 5, 1864, Major

¹⁸ *Official Records of the Union and Confederate Navies*, Series I, Vol. XV, pp. 328-336.

¹⁹ *United States Naval Institute Proceedings* (May, 1942), p. 668.

General Maury of the Confederate Army wrote to Flag Officer Farrand of the navy to tell him that although all opportunity had been given Halligan to use his boat against the enemy, it was evident that he was not the "proper man to conduct such an enterprise." Therefore, he wished Farrand to appoint a suitable officer to take charge of the *Saint Patrick*.²⁰ Halligan was removed and the command turned over to Lieutenant Walker. On January 27, 1865, Walker struck out and made an attack on the flagship *Octorora*. The attack was a failure, for although Walker struck the ship with a torpedo, it failed to explode. In the confusion aboard the *Octorora* Walker escaped.²¹

On March 13, 1865, the Navy Department received word from New Orleans that the Confederates were building a submarine at Houston, Texas, and four at Shreveport, Louisiana. The one at Houston, which had evidently received some tests, was forty feet long, four feet deep and forty inches wide. It was of iron construction, shaped somewhat like a boiler with

²⁰ *Official Records of the Union and Confederate Navies*, Series I, Vol. XXI, p. 931.

²¹ *Ibid.*, Series I, Vol. XXII, p. 269.

pointed ends. It had two fins on either side to help submersion, and could be propelled at the rate of four miles per hour by means of a crank. The boat usually worked about seven feet underwater and contained enough air to supply the crew for three or four hours. Two torpedoes—one carried on a spar from the bow, and a similar arrangement at the stern—made up its armament.²² These boats never went into service, for they were not completed.

Contrary to popular belief, the submarine is not a new weapon. In the Civil War it was given the first great test under battle conditions. Although Southern efforts look feeble to us, they were important in constantly harassing the Northern navy. Perhaps, if the South had developed an industrial organization similar to the North, the submarine might have assumed an even more important role. It remained, however, for the coming of the internal combustion engine, and the development of a safe and certain means of underwater motive power to bring the modern submarine to a practical stage.

²² *Ibid.*, Series I, Vol. XXII, p. 104.

New Approach to Teaching the Civil War

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It's as old as Eric the Red and as new as the future. It's as factual as the archives in Washington and as fictional as individual interpretation permits. It's as informal as "The Tales of a Wayside Inn" and as formal as the dictionary. It's as interesting as a well written drama and as dull as a chronological table. It's the story of our very existence and of the existence of our forefathers. It's the story of our country. It's the history of the United States of America.

The importance, in itself, of this study need not be expressed here. It is acknowledged and assumed by all educators, and, as a course of study, is wisely required in most of the high school systems of our country.

Beyond that point, however, official interest, generally speaking, seems to be lacking. The attitude is that as a course of study it is necessary, and so is required, but educators seem to fail to realize that this is not enough; that

because of its importance it must be a brisk, vigorous, living study to be understood and absorbed by the average high school student.

If this study of American history is to be a living study—not merely an existing one—then we must show some concern over the series of inadequate textbooks in popular high school use, woefully lacking in any serious attempt at maintaining a progressive course parallel to the shifting attitude of our high school youth. This attitude reflects a greater maturity of thought than ever before, and is unconsciously erecting a barrier between this high school mind and any and all subjects that smack of pedagogy. I fear also that it is, unfortunately, influenced far too seriously by the cold-blooded, commercial tension prevalent today, best and most briefly expressed by the dollar sign. Only those subjects which, in themselves, interest the high school pupil are acceptable in full by them, and naturally, educational data is assimilated by

them and remains with them only in direct proportion to its human interest appeal. And only in proportion to its human interest appeal will the teaching of history be successful.

As defined by our good and faithful friend Mr. Noah Webster, history is "a systematic written account of events, especially of those affecting a nation, institution, science or art, usually connected with the philosophical explanation of their causes."

With this in mind we arrive at the conclusion that history is history only when true and complete; only when the sequence of events is properly maintained; and only when the evaluation of these events is impartial, without regard to public sentiment.

A history text need not be of ten volumes to be complete, and neither is brevity in itself of value. Its educational value is satisfactory only when the important events forming every situation are outlined and emphasized and the unimportant weeded out. Unfortunately, much of this important data is drab, or "dry," and its emphatic and interesting presentation is difficult. This indeed, may be said generally of the presentation of all chronological data, but there are some periods in our history that for inexplicable reasons interest the students in themselves, while others seem to have very little with which to combat an apathy often bordering, with me, at least, on the discouraging.

After teaching twelfth grade American history in three different New England locations I have, through careful observation and in response to a personal opinion quiz conducted in my classes each June, found that pupil interest fluctuates frequently and widely. If a chart had ever been drawn to indicate those periods of comparative student interest in our history, it might well resemble an outline of our business cycles showing periods of prosperity (high pupil interest) and periods of depression (low pupil interest). The periods of "depression" are usually the political histories of the periods from Van Buren to the Civil War, Hayes through Cleveland, and Harding through Hoover; and the stories of the Mexican War, Westward Expansion, and the military side of the Civil War. The periods of "prosperity" are reflected in the stories of the Puritans (I must not forget that I teach in New England),

the Revolution, the founding of our government, the clash between Jefferson and Hamilton, Andrew Jackson, Theodore Roosevelt, the causes of World War I, and the New Deal.

Of the comparatively short but turbulent history of our country there is no chapter of the story that does not have a definite bearing on the succeeding one, and therefore no period can be considered too important to ignore. However, it is often extremely difficult to put into mere words the data of these eras in such a manner that the average high school student is able to read and easily appreciate its relation to the balance of the story.

In practically every high school course of study it has been found necessary to employ the medium of student participation for proper assimilation of the subject matter. We cannot tell a girl how to achieve culinary success. We cannot tell a manual training pupil how to use a saw. We cannot tell an English student how to pen a composition properly. We cannot tell an embryonic stenographer how to attain a speed of forty or fifty words a minute on a typewriter. In all of these instances the student learns by doing, not wholly by reading or listening. Just so should the study of history be conducted.

The story of the causes, events, and aftermath of the Civil War is a fascinating and absorbing chapter in the history of our country, but as presented in most of our best-selling senior high school textbooks, it is dull, confusing, and conducive to student boredom. The account of this period between 1820 and 1865 receives extensive but cumbersome treatment. Textbook writers have piled up fact upon fact, cause upon cause, but the necessary summation in an orderly and comprehensive manner of these causes of the war is omitted, and consequently, if the average student is asked to state these causes he becomes utterly confused. He is as apt to say that the attack on Fort Sumter or Lincoln's election was the chief reason for hostilities as might the average citizen of today assert that Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor, fostered by Japan's knowledge of our unpreparedness, was the underlying cause of our entry into World War II.

I have spent a great deal of time in an examination of ten of the leading, most widely

used, senior high school history textbooks with special consideration of their treatment of Civil War maps, the economic causes of the war and the comparative resources of the North and South in 1860.

My extensive analysis of the maps showing the military and naval operations conducted during the war between the states was interesting but left me in somewhat of an antagonistic mood. Most of the maps are unsuitable for pupil consumption for two reasons: either they are tiny, with a maze of threadlike lines that only serve to perplex and obscure the data and do nothing to assist the youthful mind; or when the maps used are large, they tend to contain multifarious date-lines endeavoring to show the approximate battle positions during the different years of the struggle. It is highly improbable that the average history teacher could outline accurately such a date-line map without having previously "boned up" a bit on the subject. To expect the average high school pupil to show any interest in, and grasp such material, is indeed fatuous.

An analysis of the treatment by these texts, if indeed any, of the economic causes of the war between the states shows that too often the author has faced a problem and has taken the simple solution. He has merely skipped lightly and quickly over a period about which it is difficult to write. Many texts do discuss these economic causes, but few definitely label them as such, and very few of these books explain clearly and sufficiently that one of the fundamental causes of the war was a struggle between an agrarian, slave economy and an industrial, free economy. We attempt to teach the story of the war, but we find it virtually impossible with the material placed at our disposal to explain clearly and emphatically its fundamental causes. A teacher of American history should not be compelled to purchase a supplementary text, one written expressly as an economic history of our country, in order to put into the hands of his pupils a book which does explain and summarize the economic causes of the war, when this should and could be incorporated into a standard text.

The treatment of the comparison of the resources of the North and South in 1860 leave much to be desired. When studying the Civil

War, pupils like to know, and have a right to know, how the opposing forces compared in human and material resources. This subject receives a somewhat better treatment than that of war maps and economic causes, but still, the majority of the books do not present the material in a tabular or summary form acceptable by a teacher and his class.

The war between the states, the most bloody, man for man, in our history, climaxing as it does a forty-year period of sectional rivalry and involving more than a week of history class time, is an epoch in our history which deserves to be understood and appreciated by all children. Without any desire to be hypercritical, and with all due respect to the scholarship of our textbook authors, I feel that there is much to be desired in the treatment of the period by our contemporary historians.

A survey of pupil opinion in three New England high schools in response to my questionnaire concerning what seems to be the two most popular American history textbooks in use in this section of the country resulted in the composite answers as shown on the accompanying table, and indicated that I am not alone in my opinion.

QUESTION ON VALUE TO STUDENT
OF _____'S TEXT

	Excellent	Fair	Poor
Maps in General	8%	77%	15%
Maps of Civil War	4%	30%	66%
Explanation of Causes of			
Wars	8%	42%	50%
Summaries of Legislation	35%	50%	15%
Character Sketches		58%	42%
Illustrations	8%	88%	4%
Vocabulary: Easy to Understand?	56%	35%	9%
Do You Feel That _____'s			
Text Tells the Story of			
the Civil War in an Interesting Manner?	Yes	No	
	22%	78%	

Because of these many textbook deficiencies, I began experimenting several years ago on a teacher-made unit on the Civil War. The laboratory, or project method, was chosen as a means of teaching and clarifying what I believed then and more strongly believe now to be the subject most inadequately and clumsily presented by history textbook writers.

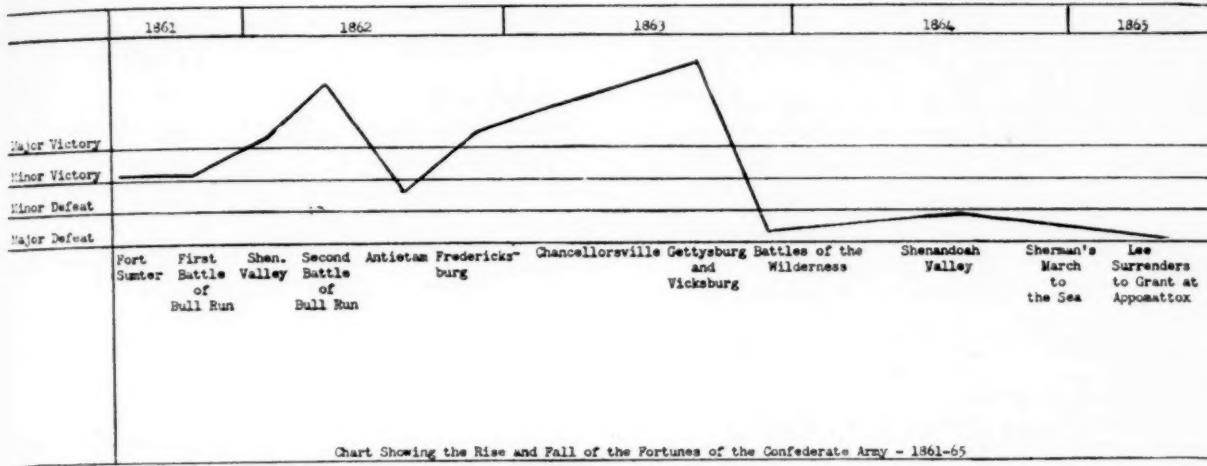


Chart Showing the Rise and Fall of the Fortunes of the Confederate Army - 1861-65

The project as used to facilitate the study of this period is one that has been organized, reviewed, and reorganized until it has finally been developed into an outline of study that summarizes for the pupil and serves to draw out of the pupil the information that he should know and should have learned about this important period.

After pursuing the study of the period from 1820 to 1865 in the usual classroom manner for approximately three weeks, the class is given the project as an assignment for which one week is allowed for completion. By answering the guiding questions as required, each student is reminded of the important material that he should remember, and since he must employ his individual organizational ability, the answers as he applies them to the outline will be those which he will best retain.

My outline of the project consists of ten major divisions, each stated briefly at the top of a page. Of these ten sections, only seven require work by the class, as three, a map, a chart, and a short story of Abraham Lincoln, are offered as study aids.

The pupil is required to fill in each of the seven pages to complete the assignment. He is of course, not compelled to limit his answers to the one sheet of paper supplied; he may use as much supplementary space as he feels necessary to present properly his material.

The volume of work submitted to me by the student has no bearing on the student's grade. His work is evaluated strictly on the basis of completeness, organization of the material, and his interpretation of its significance.

The ten divisions of the project covering this critical chapter in our history are these:

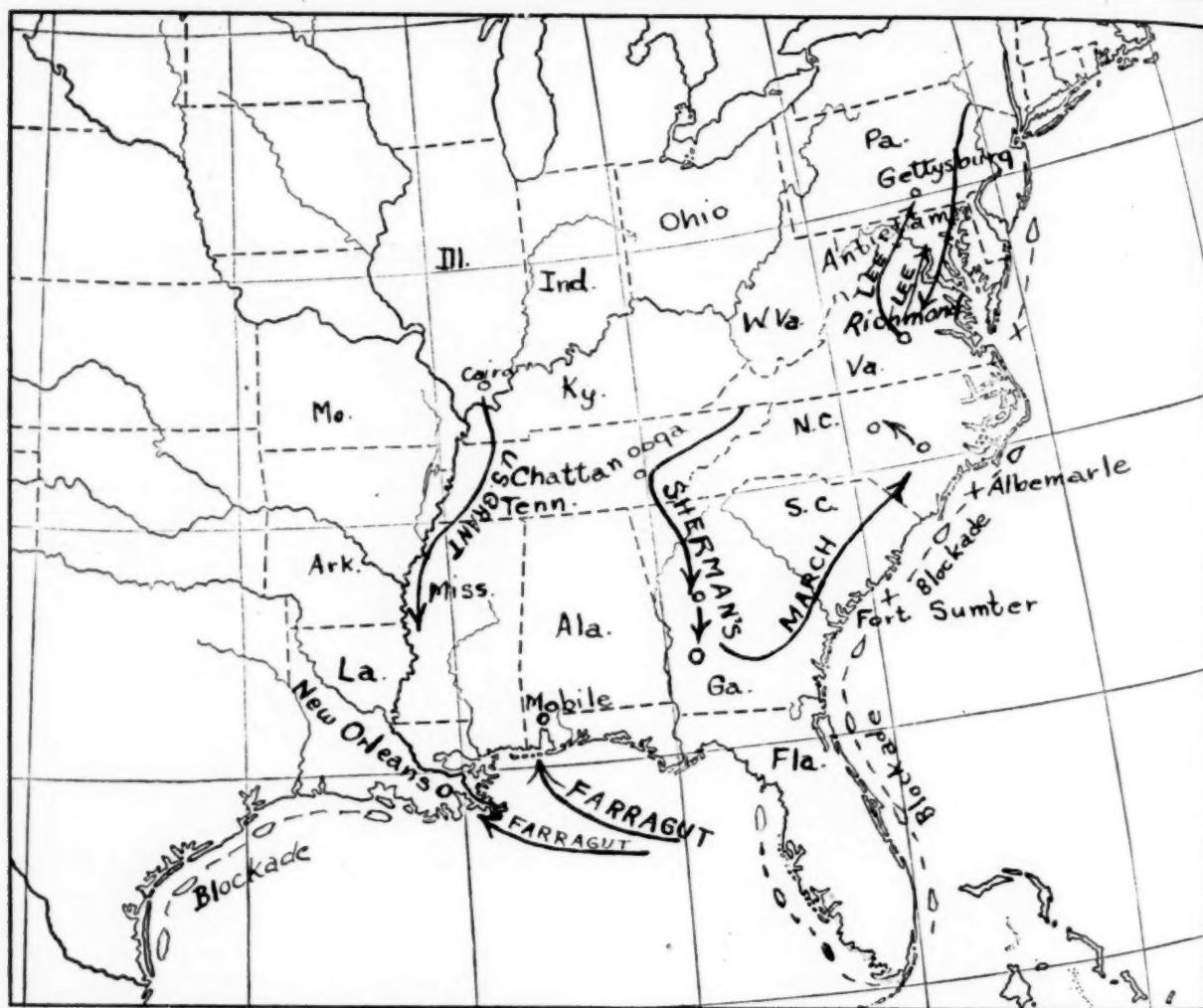
- I—The Chief Political Causes of the Conflict.
- II—The Chief Economic Causes.
- III—Any Additional Causes of the So-Called Irrepressible Conflict.

In this section we point out such influences as:

- A—The anti-slavery feeling of the North vs. the pro-slavery feelings of the South as a moral issue as differentiated from its economic importance.
- B—The effect of publicity attending such incidents as John Brown's raid on Harpers Ferry.
- C—Opinion stirred up by the Lincoln-Douglas debates; and by such literature of the times as the story "Uncle Tom's Cabin," and the editorials of the *New York Tribune* and the *New York Times*.

These causes, and others of a similar nature do not fall within the limits of section I or II, but cannot be ignored as contributory to the ultimate hostilities.

- IV—A Comparison of the Resources of the North and South as they Lined up for Battle in 1861.
- V—The Military Plans of the North and South in 1861.
- VI—A Chart Showing the Tide of Battle. Since the Confederate Army held the upper hand during the greater part of the struggle, this chart,



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which is furnished complete to the student as a special study aid, outlines the rise and fall of the Southern army rather than the Northern. Not only does this chart show victory and defeat, but it also indicates the relative degree of each.

B—A map showing the military and naval campaigns of the war is also furnished in a completed stage, and has three outstanding features:

1. By the use of seven clearly defined arrows, prominently labeled, I indicate the direction of the military campaigns. Confusing date lines and all thread lines—both of which are prevalent in

most texts—are omitted. The map is clear, easy to read and understand, and simple in outline.

2. The naval blockade and the sites of the major naval engagements are clearly shown.

3. So far as I know, and I have verified this statement very carefully and thoroughly, this map is more historically accurate than any senior high school United States history textbook map in use today.

VII—Questions on the Conduct of the War.

VIII—Abraham Lincoln and his Part in the Civil War.

The student is here expected to outline briefly Lincoln's part in the war, and also to compare him with the political leaders of the Confederacy.

IX—A Short Account of One of the Battles in which Men of my Home Town Fought.

This particular part of the outline is designed to develop student interest in the part taken by men of the home town as exemplified by the monument to the local Civil War heroes that stands in nearly every community in the East and South of our country. In addition to describing the battle, very often the answer is accompanied by an illustration outlining the tactics of the opposing forces, or some account of a local hero.

X—A Short Story of Abraham Lincoln.

"When Abraham Lincoln was a young man he ran for the legislature of Illinois and was badly swamped. He next entered business, failed and spent seventeen years of his life paying up the debts of his worthless partner. He fell in love with a beautiful young woman to whom he became engaged—then she died. Entering politics he ran for Congress and was badly defeated. He then tried to get an appointment to the United States Land Office, but failed. He became a candidate for the U. S. Senate and was badly defeated. In 1856 he became a candidate for the Vice-Presidency and was again defeated. In 1858 he was defeated by Stephen Douglas. But in the face of all these defeats and failures, Lincoln eventually achieved the highest success attainable in life, and undying fame to the end of time."

This interesting little story of Lincoln has been a favorite in my classes for as many years as I have used it. I found the story, author anonymous, embellished in handsome script directly beneath a portrait of Lincoln in the office of an executive of a large Boston department store.

The use of this type of material in the teaching of history is endorsed by Professor Mahoney of Boston University.¹ In support he says: "The progressive, wide-awake teacher should canvass various sources — books, maps, newspapers, political addresses, broadcasts,

motion-pictures — select materials therefrom, and organize them for teaching purposes. Such materials are invaluable as a means of causing students to appreciate those public servants who can be regarded as superior."

The test that students take on this unit consists of six essay questions designed to find out whether they have a general knowledge and grasp of the causes and events of the war. Objective type tests on this unit are not desirable because they pin pupils down to a knowledge of petty facts, such as:

- (a) When was New Orleans taken?
- (b) Identify: April 12, 1862?
- (c) Why was Capt. Wildes' seizure of the envoys on the *Trent* illegal?²

What do pupils think of this Civil War project? Has it succeeded in fulfilling the objectives set for it? Let the 225 students who have worked on it in class answer for me.

Question on Value to Student of Civil War Project:

Yes No

1. Do you find projects like this much harder than the regular recitation - lecture method employed in this course?	43%	57%
2. Do you find project-work an interesting change from the regular type class meeting?	89%	11%
3. Do you think you learn more in two weeks by the project method than by regular method?	90%	10%
If by project method answer yes.		
4. Does this project simplify for you the study of the Civil War?	96%	4%

This evidence of pupil satisfaction with the project encourages me to make further efforts along such lines and to recommend to others the occasional use of this type of teaching approach. It is also suggested that more teachers make surveys of pupil opinion as a means of checking on student needs and teacher techniques.

Whenever the textbook is inadequate or the historical material inherently dull this type of teacher-made project is strongly recommended as a means of awakening the slumbering children of Morpheus and in challenging the "Quiz Kids" to acquire more "Information Please."

¹ John J. Mahoney, *For Us The Living* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1945), p. 310.

² Taken from three best selling senior American history texts.

A Semester Course in Current Problems

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Alert social studies teachers are well aware of their responsibilities in adapting their courses to meet the needs of students living in a changing world. Many young people in our high schools are vitally concerned about the important problems which confront them now that victory has been achieved. They desire to acquire an understanding of the nature of these problems and of their possible solutions. They are eager to "do something" now which will give them the feeling of participation in contributing to the welfare of others. Adolescents are impatient with adults who imply that they are incapable of understanding the vital questions of peace or of assuming responsibility in achieving their solution. If they are given the opportunity, they are able, through teacher-pupil planning, to organize a course which has significance to them and more nearly meets their felt needs and interests than do the usual traditional courses in the social studies.

Such an approach was used in the current problems course taught during the second semester 1944-1945. Most of the students in the class had taken a personal problems course (theoretical and applied psychology) during the first semester. There, numerous questions had been raised concerning national and world problems with a psychological background. Does the aggressive drive inherited by man mean that there will always be wars between nations and hence it is futile to attempt a world security organization? Do we inherit a prejudice for the Negro race or is that attitude learned in our environment? To what extent is juvenile delinquency caused by environmental factors? How can returning service men be assisted in making readjustments to civilian life? Such questions had already aroused the interest of the class in several of the most important problems of peace.

Since no textbook was used in the course in current problems, during the first two weeks

the class made certain decisions concerning the course:

1. General objectives.
2. Criteria to be used in selecting problems to be studied.
3. Selection of problems.
4. Activities to be followed in achieving objectives.
5. Sources of materials to be used.

Objectives which were set up by the students after several periods of discussion:

1. An understanding of the causes, nature and possible solution of the problems selected.
2. Habit of wider reading in newspapers and magazines on current affairs and of listening to the serious radio discussions.
3. Knowledge of the location of regions, islands, countries, and other geographical points of importance in war developments.
4. Ability to contribute intelligently to conversation with others on current affairs.
5. Increased skill in using the various sources of information such as *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, encyclopedias, *World Almanac*, maps, atlas, card index, etc.
6. Realization that conclusions should be based on information obtained by wide reading on both sides of a problem.
7. The desire to "do something about it"—to act as well as talk.

The next step taken by the class in planning the semester's work was to decide on the criteria which should be used in guiding the selection of the problems. These were:

1. Problems should be of either local (school), national, or world importance.
2. They should not be too difficult for high school seniors.
3. They should contribute to achievement of

one or more of the objectives of the course.

4. They should be stated as difficulties requiring solutions.
5. They should be problems about which sufficient materials could be found.

For the purpose of selecting these problems the class was then divided into small groups of four or five members. After a chairman was chosen by each, recent issues of magazines and newspapers were read for several periods. Students were directed to try to discover what appeared to be persistent problems which they felt met the criteria and objectives set up by the class. These were discussed in each group and suggestions were listed by the chairman. The lists were then handed to the teacher who had them mimeographed and ready to return to the entire class at the next meeting.

A class chairman was elected. He led the discussions which finally resulted in the choice of eight major problems to be studied during the semester. Each student was encouraged to suggest one or more questions which he wished to become a part of the course, stating the reasons for his preference. Those who objected were permitted to give their objections. Without exception, each suggestion resulted in a lively discussion pro and con. Then the chairman called for a vote. Some suggestions were accepted; others were rejected. The final list contained no international problems because it was decided that the class would study these in the weekly student newspaper which each student was required to take. This was the only requirement of the course imposed by the teacher. It was also understood that as the semester progressed new problems might arise which might seem more vital than those already selected and substitutions could be made when a majority of the class felt the need.

It might appear to some that this method of planning the course left out the teacher completely. But that was not the case. The teacher was always present and her guidance and suggestions were often requested, considered and accepted. In fact, she felt that the final list was very similar to one which she might have presented the class. Yet, it had the advantage of having been almost wholly drawn up by the

class working cooperatively. Therefore, the members felt much more interest and concern than would have existed if the course had been dictated by the teacher without any consideration of their suggestions.

The final step in planning the course was the development of a list of activities in which the class as a group or as individuals might engage in achieving their objectives:

1. Holding informal class discussions.
2. Holding small group or panel discussion in front of the class.
3. Debating—the only activity which was not engaged in at least once during the course. This class preferred informal discussions to debates (formal).
4. Listening to outside speakers.
5. Reading materials provided.
6. Taking field trips.
7. Looking at motion pictures.
8. Attending public lectures.
9. Making formal talks in front of the class.
10. Listening to pertinent radio broadcasts.
11. Working on committees.
12. Holding joint discussions with a similar class in a neighboring school. This activity has become a tradition in our school.

All problems were studied by the entire class under the guidance of a committee selected by the class. Each student served several times on committees. However, several of the more retiring members were not chosen as chairman. It was the duty of the committee to find material to be used, to inform the class how it should be used, to plan and lead the informal discussion of the problem after the assimilation of the material. Most of these discussions were led by the entire committee sitting in front of the class. Some committees preferred to remain in their seats with the chairman only in front.

The following list of units which composed the course suggests some of the special activities (in addition to the usual reading, talking, writing) and some of the materials found most useful. Limited space makes impossible a comprehensive list of these.

UNIT I—SHOULD OUR HIGH SCHOOL HAVE SOME FORM OF STUDENT GOVERNMENT?

For years there had been an undercurrent of

feeling among the students that they should have more "say" in school affairs. But no one seemed to know what to do. After reading and discussing the problems involved in student participation, the current problems class took several steps which will give the student body a greater part in making decisions that concern them:

1. Members of the class studied the constitutions of student councils of neighboring schools.
2. They asked a member of the student council from a nearby school to talk to them and answer questions.
3. They made short talks to all social studies classes on a specified day urging the student body to vote yes at the approaching election in which the question was: "Should we have a student council?"
4. They made posters and distributed them over the school urging the same.
5. They supervised an election modeled after a regular election in which all students were given the opportunity by secret ballot to indicate whether they desired a council. The election was almost unanimous in the affirmative.
6. They asked the executive committees of each class to select two representatives to a constitutional committee whose duty was to write the constitution for the council. Since the current problems class had made a special study of the problems involved, the principal asked that several members assist the committee.
7. After the issues were discussed and decided by the committee, the constitution was written and referred to the superintendent and principal, who made several suggestions.
8. Since the school year was so near an end, it was too late to present it to the student body. So the committee gave it to the principal and asked him to submit it for the acceptance of all the students in the fall.

Materials used for reading and study were excellent but so few that it was necessary to have extracts from some of them mimeographed and handed to each student:

1. *The Student Council in the Secondary*

Schools—a handbook of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

2. Several leaflets and reprints of articles in *Clearing House*—distributed free by the National Self Government Committee, 80 Broadway, New York. Especially good was "Student Government—Why Ours Worked," by Edith Tuttle.

3. Richard Welling, "Let's Teach Them to Govern Themselves," *Progressive Education* (April, 1944).
4. Articles on student councils in Milwaukee, Wisconsin and Illinois, in *Character and Citizenship Magazine*, (Dec., 1944).
5. Harry McKown, *The Student Council* (McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York).

UNIT II—WHAT ARE THE CAUSES AND POSSIBLE SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEM OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY?

Special Activities of the Class:

1. Obtained facts about the local situation from talks made to the class by the Juvenile court judge and the social welfare worker who handled delinquency cases.
2. Held a joint discussion of the problem with a group from a nearby high school who had also studied the question.
3. Made a trip to the State Industrial Home for Girls which is located in our town. Thus it was learned how some delinquents are treated.
4. Several in the class became members of a committee which took steps to organize a "Teen Town Center."

Materials Used for Study:

1. Several excellent pamphlets costing ten and fifteen cents each were obtained from the National Recreation Association. The *Recreation Magazine* contains many articles. (315 Fourth Avenue, New York).
2. From the federal government we obtained "Juvenile Delinquency and Schools" and "What About Us?" *Report of the Committee on Recreation for Young People* (Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C. Free). From the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor—*Understanding Juvenile Delinquency* (No. 301, 1943), and *Controlling Juvenile Delinquency* (No. 300, 1943).

3. The entire issue of *Survey Midmonthly* (March 15, 1944), published by Survey Associates, Inc., 112 East 19th St., New York. Also *Character and Citizenship Magazine* (Nov., 1944), 53 West Jackson, Chicago, Illinois.

UNIT III—HOW CAN RELATIONS BETWEEN NEGRO AND WHITE AMERICANS BE IMPROVED?

This problem was taken up at the time when the local Christian Youth Organization was sponsoring a lecture and concert by an especially capable Negro woman. Both races attended these meetings. Although all the class did not go, several did. They reported a much more sympathetic attitude. One member of the class interviewed one of the local Negro teachers and reported her findings of discrimination in our midst. Several listened to radio broadcasts of Negro singers and all saw the motion picture, the "Negro Soldier," which was obtained from our state university. This picture is especially good on the contributions of the Negro to American life.

Study Materials Used:

1. From the Conference on Education and Race Relations, 710 Standard Building, Atlanta, Georgia, we obtained: *America's Obligation to Its Negro Citizens*, by Mark Ethridge (Pp. 11, 30 cents per dozen); *America's Tenth Man* (Pp. 31, 1944, 10 cents); *Singers in the Dawn—A Brief Anthology of American Negro Poetry*, edited by Robert B. Eleazer (Commission on Interracial Cooperation, same address, Pp. 23, 1943, 10 cents).
2. Various leaflets and pamphlets from the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 169 Fifth Ave., New York.
3. From the Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York: Ruth Benedict and Gene Wetfish, *The Races of Mankind* (1944); Earl Brown, *Why Race Riots?—Lessons From Detroit* (1944); Maxwell Stewart, *The Negro in America* (1944, 10 cents each).
4. "The Negro—His Future in America," a special 20-page section of *The New Republic* (Oct. 18, 1944).
5. For Teacher's Use: *Diversity Within National Unity* (National Council of Social

Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C. (Pp. 32, 10 cents), and *Negro Employment—A Curriculum Unit*, by Helen B. Goetsch (Harvard University Workshop Papers, 15 cents).

6. Periodicals: Henry Pratt Fairchild, "The Truth About Race," *Harpers* (Oct., 1944); Will W. Alexander, "Our Conflicting Racial Policies," *Harpers* (Jan., 1945); Harry Richardson, "Negroes Plead for Understanding," *New York Times Magazine* (Nov. 12, 1944); R. C. Weaver, "The Negro Comes of Age," *Atlantic* (Sept., 1943); Lester Granger, "Hopeful Sign in Race Relations," *Survey Graphic* (Nov., 1944); H. S. Commager, "Race Problem in America," *Scholastic* (Sept. 25, 1944); William Hard, "Whites and Blacks Can Work Together," *Readers' Digest* (March, 1944); Virginius Dabney, "The South Marches On," *Survey Graphic* (Nov., 1943); Eleanor Fishburn and Mildred Fenner, "Booker T. Washington," *Journal of National Education Association* (April, 1944); Norma Humphrey, "Race Can Work Towards Democracy," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* (Oct., 1944); William J. Norton, "Detroit Riots and After," *Survey Graphic* (Aug., 1943); Mordecai Johnson "Negro Opportunity and National Morale," *Journal of National Education Association* (Sept., 1941). For teacher's use: Mildred Williams and W. L. Van Loan, "Education for Racial Equality," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* (Nov., 1943).

UNIT IV—HOW CAN RUSSIA AND THE UNITED STATES GET ALONG IN THE POSTWAR WORLD?

Materials Used:

1. Movie—"Report from Russia," an OWI film.
2. Harvard Workshop Series No. 6—*Meet the Soviet Russians*. (Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., 1944, Pp. 89, 75 cents).
3. *Building America*, Unit on "Russia," (Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of N.E.A., 2 West 45th St., New York). Contains excellent pictures.
4. *Bibliography on the Soviet Union*, (National Council of American Soviet Friendship, New York, 1944).

5. *The People of the U.S.S.R.*, East-West Association, East 49th Street, New York. Also a picture folio, *Life of a Family in Russia* (contains 16 scenes, 50 cents).
6. *An Atlas of U.S.S.R.*, (Oxford University Press, New York, 1942, Pp. 32, 10 cents).
7. Marguerite Stewart, "Land of Soviets" (Institute of Pacific Relations and Webster Publishing Co., St. Louis, 1944, 30 cents).
8. *A Selected List of Recent References on Russia* — books, pamphlets, periodicals since 1938. (Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, Washington, D. C.). Also a *Bibliography on Russia* (Teachers Service Bureau, Scholastic Magazines, 220 East 42 Street, New York).
9. *United Nations—Peoples and Countries* — a small pamphlet issued by United Nations Information Office, 610 Fifth Ave., New York. Contains a short description of each nation. (15 cents). A large picture poster on each can also be obtained.
10. Wendell Willkie. *One World* (Simon and Shuster, New York, 1943, \$1.00).
11. Picture sheets and leaflets, obtained from American-Russian Institute, 56 West 45th St., New York.
12. Periodicals: "American - Russian Frontiers," entire issue of *Survey Graphic* (Feb., 1944); William L. White, "Report on Russia," *Reader's Digest* (Dec., 1944 and Jan., 1945); Francis Ahl, "U.S.S.R. and the Postwar World," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* (April, 1945); Mitzi Barach, "Education in the Soviet Union," *Journal of National Education Association* (Feb., 1945); "What Russia Is and Wants," *New York Times Magazine* (Jan. 28, 1945); Edgar Snow, "How Fast Can Russia Rebuild?" *Saturday Evening Post* (Feb. 12, 1944); Sumner Welles, "What Russia Wants," *Readers' Digest* (Nov., 1944); William Standley, "Russia in the Postwar World," *Vital Speeches* (Jan., 1945); William Chamberlin, "Russia Vast Land of Riches," *Science Digest* (Feb., 1944); Eric Johnston, "Russian Visit," *Life* (Sept. 11, 1944); Helen T. Schulke, "Soviet Russia: A Curriculum Unit," *Social Education* (March, 1945); Corliss

Lamont, "The Schools and Soviet Understanding," *Social Education* (Feb., 1945) —(the last two for teacher's use).

UNIT V—SHOULD COMPULSORY PEACETIME MILITARY TRAINING BE ADOPTED?

Materials Used:

1. *Compulsory Peacetime Military Training* (Educational Commission, 1281 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C. 10 cents).
2. *Do We Want Military Training For Youth?* (Town Hall Broadcast Jan. 25, 1945. Town Hall, New York. 10 cents).
3. *Conscription Youth*, by Oswald G. Villard, and *The Case Against Peacetime Military Training* (Postwar World Council, 112 East 19th St., New York, 10 cents).
4. "Should the U. S. Adopt Compulsory Military Training," *Congressional Digest* (726 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington, D. C. 50 cents).
5. *Wake Up America*, Broadcast No. 244 by Norman Thomas and Walter Weible. (The American Economic Foundation, 295 Madison Avenue, New York. 10 cents).
6. Periodicals: Frank Knox, "Let's Train Our Youth Now," *Reader's Digest* (July, 1944); Walter E. Myer, "The Case For and Against Peacetime Conscription," *Journal of National Education Association* (Nov., 1944); Charles Ellwood, "I Am Deeply Concerned," *Journal of National Education Association* (Sept. 1944); "Shall We Have Universal Military Training?" *Independent Women* (April, 1945); Irvine Kerrison, "The Case Against Conscription," *Social Education* (Jan., 1945); "Should Young Men Be Given Military Training in Peace?" *Scholastic* (Dec. 11, 1944); Thomas M. Johnson, "The Military Essentials For Our Postwar Safety," *Reader's Digest* (Dec., 1944); "Shall We Have Compulsory Military Training?" *Scholastic* (Oct. 15, 1945).

UNIT VI—SHOULD THE VOTING AGE BE REDUCED TO 18?

Materials Used:

1. F. M. Brewer, "The Voting Age," *Editorial Research Reports* No. 9 (Sept., 1944, 1013 Thirteenth N. W., Washington, D. C. 25 cents).

2. "Reducing the Voting Age"—Special debate number of the *Congressional Digest* (Aug., 1944, 726 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.).
3. Julia Johnson, "Lowering the Voting Age" Vol. 17, No. 5, *Reference Shelf* (H. H. Wilson Co., New York, \$1.25).
4. "Should The Legal Voting Age Be Reduced to 18 Years?" *American Forum of the Air* (Feb. 20, 1945, 810 Rhode Island Avenue, N. E. Washington, D. C.).
5. "Reducing the Voting Age," *Scholastic Debater* (several issues, free to subscribers of *Scholastic* magazines).
6. "Youth Suffrage" — National University Extension Association, *Handbook, 1944-1945* (Edited by Aly Bower, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri).
7. Lyle Ashley, "Should the Legal Voting Age be Reduced?" *Journal of National Education Association* (March, 1945).

UNIT VII—HOW CAN WE BEST HELP THE RETURNING SERVICE MEN TO READJUST TO CIVILIAN LIFE?

Materials Used:

1. From Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York: Maxwell Stewart, *When I Get Out Will I Find A Job?* (1944, 10 cents); Dallas Johnson, *Facts and Tips for Service Men and Women* (1944, 10 cents).
2. Materials on the G.I. Bill of Rights from the local office of the Veterans Administration.
3. Periodicals: Norman T. Kirk, "What We Owe to the Wounded," *New York Times Magazine* (Dec. 24, 1944); Edith Efron, "Old Jobs—New Ones For Veterans," *New York Times Magazine* (March 18, 1945); Charles G. Bolte, "The Veteran's Runaround," *Harper's* (April, 1945); "We've Been Asked About Disability Payments To Veterans," *United States News* (March 30, 1945); Arch Santar, "Home Coming Isn't Easy," *Saturday Evening Post* (Dec. 16, 1945); Willard Waller, "What You Can Do To Help the Veterans," *Ladies Home Journal* (Feb., 1945); Miles Hollister, "Careers For G. I. Joes," *American Magazine* (March, 1945); C. B. Palmer, "Back from the Front and Won-

dering," *New York Times Magazine* (Oct. 29, 1944); Albert Maisee, "Third Rate Medicine for First Rate Men," *Cosmopolitan* (April, 1945); Frank Hine, "G. I. Bill of Rights," *Vital Speeches* (Nov. 1, 1944); and "Veterans and the Community" (same magazine); "Will G. I. Joe Get a Job?" *Look* (Oct. 31, 1944); Mitchell Dreese, "Khaki to Mufti," *Journal of National Education Association* (May, 1945).

UNIT VIII—HOW CAN PROBLEMS OF THE POSTWAR AIR AGE BE SOLVED?

Materials Used:

1. Pamphlets, charts, maps, from Air Age Education Research, 100 East 42nd St., New York. Ask for price list.
2. Public Affairs Pamphlets—Keith Hutchinsin, *Freedom of the Air* (1944); Walde-mar Kaempffert, *The Airplane and To-morrow's World* (1944).
3. Motion picture: "Airways of the Future" —March of Time Series (364 Lexington Avenue, New York).
4. *Building America*—"Aviation" (Vol. IV), "Winged America" (Vol. VIII).
5. Chicago Round Table, No. 258—*The Airplane and the Future*, by Kaempffert, Patterson and Wirth (Feb. 28, 1943).
6. Foreign Policy Association Pamphlets: Howard Whidden, *New Horizon in International Transport* and Burnet Hershey, *Skyways of Tomorrow* (1944), 25 cents.
7. Material from the various aviation companies—free.
8. Periodicals: William Fielding Ogburn, "Air Age Transport," *Survey Graphic* (Feb., 1945); Blair Bolles, "The Future of International Airways," *Harpers* (Jan., 1944); Joseph Kastner, "The Postwar Air," *Life* (Nov., 1943); John Geisse, "Before I Buy A Plane," *Science Digest* (April, 1945); C. B. MacClellan, "Commuting by Helicopter," *Science Digest* (June, 1944); "New Era in Air Transport; Growing Rivalry for Routes," *United States News* (Sept. 22, 1944); F. Graham, "Will Tomorrow's Plane Look Like This?" *Saturday Evening Post* (Jan. 29, 1944); "The Future of Air Travel," *Science Digest* (April, 1944); Deena Clark, "Travel Lure of a Sixty-Hour

World," *Readers Digest* (Feb., 1945); "The Coming World Air Age," *Scholastic* (Oct. 16, 1944).

UNIT IX—HOW CAN RECONVERSION AND FULL EMPLOYMENT BE ACHIEVED?

1. *Jobs in Peacetime*—a panel discussion by Phillip Murray, William Green, Paul Hoffman and Others (National Association of Manufacturers. 14 West 49th St., New York.—free).
2. *Who Can Best Provide Postwar Jobs—Private Industry or the Government?*—Wake Up America Radio Broadcast Jan. 9, 1944 (American Economic Foundation, 295 Madison Avenue, New York. 10 cents).
3. *Postwar Planning for Peace and Full Employment* (League for Industrial Democracy, 112 East 19th Street, New York. 25 cents).
4. *Employment After the War*, by John H. Piersen (American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C. —free).
5. From Brookings Institute, Washington, D. C.—Karl Schlotterbeck, *Postwar Re-Employment*; Harold Moulton and Karl Schlotterbeck, "Collapse or Boom at End of the War?" (25 cents each).
6. Stewart Chase, *Goals for America* (Twentieth Century Fund, 33 West 42nd St.,

New York \$1.00.) Also *Postwar Jobs—Responsibility of Labor* (same address).

7. Joseph Livingston, *Reconversion—The Job Ahead* (Public Affairs Pamphlet 1944. 10 cents).
8. Periodicals: Henry Wallace, "Jobs For All," *New Republic* (Jan. 29, 1945); Stanley Lebergott, "Shall We Guarantee Full Employment?" *Harpers* (Feb., 1945); Alvin Hansen, "Wanted; Ten Million Jobs," *Atlantic Monthly* (Sept., 1943); Forrest Davis, "Sixty-Million Job Myth," *Saturday Evening Post* (May 5, 1945); "Prosperity, How to Get It"—special section of the *New Republic* (Nov. 27, 1944); Hartley Grattan, "Factories Can't Employ Everybody," *Harpers* (Sept., 1944); Leo Cherne, "We Can Buy Prosperity" and Alvin Hansen, "The Price of Prosperity," *New Republic* (Jan. 15, 1943); Alfred Sloan, "Importance of Jobs," *Vital Speeches* (Dec. 1, 1944); Louis Ruthenburg, "Maximum Total Employment Shall Be Our Aim," *Saturday Evening Post* (Sept. 16, 1944); Arthur Hood, "Is Full Employment Attainable?" *Vital Speeches* (June 15, 1944); Virgil Jordan, "Reconversion—To What?" *Vital Speeches* (Feb. 15, 1945); James Patton, "A Plan for Prosperity" *New Republic* (Nov. 6, 1944).

A Unit Course in American History

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PART II

Unit IV—STRENGTHENING THE BONDS OF UNION

I. Introduction. The growth of a nation from infancy to maturity can be compared in some respects to that of a person. It is beset with numerous problems as difficult as teething and fighting the measles. Following the War for Independence and the adoption of the Constitution, the United States began its career as a new and independent nation. Its people, although tired from a long war and desiring to

settle down to a peaceful life, were not yet united. There were too many problems that vexed the new-born nation. There were agrarian interests and mercantile interests which conflicted in many ways. One group believed in a land of farmers, with greater democratic control of the government by the people; the other, in a land of merchants with less democratic control by the people. There were some who believed in a strict and narrow interpretation of the Constitution, and there were others who believed in a broad and liberal interpretation of the Constitution. There were also problems that had to do with banks, the tariff,

territorial expansion and slavery. The latter was a problem so big that it had to be settled later by a Civil War. But like a growing child that has good hereditary background, the young Republic was able to weather the winds and storms successfully.

II. Specific Understanding to be Derived.

- A. An understanding of the inter-relationship between the social, political and economic problems that faced our country after the adoption of the Constitution.
- B. An understanding of how our present-day institutions have been influenced in their development by the manner in which the early problems of our country were handled.
- C. A knowledge and appreciation of those persons who were chosen to guide the destiny of our country.

III. The Problem of Organizing a New Government. (One week)

A. Pupil Activities:

Read in your textbook the pages dealing with the above topic. Textbooks—William Guitteau, *The History of the United States*; C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley, *The History of the American People*; S. E. Forman, *Advanced American History*.

B. Answer the following questions:

1. List some of the immediate problems that faced the new government of George Washington.
2. What persons made up his first Cabinet?
3. Who was Washington's most influential adviser?
4. How did he plan to handle the problems of the national debt and currency?
5. What was the Whiskey Rebellion? Of what significance was it?
6. Describe how political parties originated during Washington's first administration.
7. What were the names of the two parties? What did each stand for? Who were their leaders?
8. Check with the index, the pages given for the topics below and give a brief explanation of the part they played in

the general issue of state rights vs. centralization.

1. The First Bank of the United States
2. The Tariff
3. The Louisiana Purchase
4. The Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions
5. The Hartford Convention

IV. The Problems of Foreign Relation. (Two weeks)

- A. Pupil Activities. Read in your textbook the pages dealing with the above topic. Textbooks — William Guitteau; C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley; S. E. Forman.
- B. Answer the following questions:
 1. What were some of the conditions in France that caused its people to revolt?
 2. Why were the people of the United States sympathetic to the cause of the French Revolution?
 3. Who was "Citizen Genet?"
 4. What were our chief grievances against England?
 5. What were the terms of Jay's Treaty of 1795? Why was it unpopular? What were its good points?
 6. What important message was contained in Washington's Farewell Address? How did it affect our future foreign policy?
 7. What was the XYZ affair?
 8. What were the Alien and Sedition Acts?
 9. Describe the election of Thomas Jefferson.
 10. Explain the reasons for the passage of the Embargo Act of 1807 and the Non-intercourse Act of 1809? How did the country react to them? Why?
 11. What were the causes of the War of 1812?
 12. Give the main provisions of the Treaty of Ghent?
 13. What was the Monroe Doctrine? How have we lived up to its original intent? What problems does it place before us today?

V. The Problem of Agrarianism vs. Mercantilism. (One week)

A. Pupil Activities:

Read in your textbooks the pages dealing with the topic. Textbooks — William Guitteau; C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley; S. E. Forman.

B. Answer the following questions:

1. Define "agrarianism" and "mercantilism."
2. Give a brief description of the life and character of Andrew Jackson.
3. What part did the tariff and the Second Bank of the United States play in Jackson's administration?
4. Give the causes of the Panic of 1837.
5. Explain the importance of the Webster-Hayne debates.
6. Trace the development of political parties from Washington to Jackson.

VI. The Problem of Territorial Expansion and its Effect Upon National Development. (Two weeks)

A. Pupil activities

Read in your textbook the pages dealing with the above topic.

Textbooks—William Guitteau; C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley; S. E. Forman.

B. Answer the following questions:

1. What basic policies did the Ordinance of 1787 establish regarding the addition of new territories to the Union?
2. What was the effect of frontier life upon the political, social, and economic development of our country?
3. How did we acquire Florida?
4. What social and economic issue was always tied up with question of admitting a new state into the union?
5. Explain the importance of the more liberal land policy adopted by Congress in 1800 and in 1820.
6. Describe the acquisition of Texas.
7. List the causes of the Mexican War.
8. List and discuss the terms of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.
9. List and give a brief descriptive statement of the outstanding personalities connected with the Mexican War.

VII. Home and Library Work.

- A. Write a brief summary, in essay or outline form, on each of the topics listed below.

1. The Foreign Policy of George Washington

2. The impressment of Seamen

3. The *Chesapeake* Affair

4. The Land Policy of the Federal Government

5. The Lewis and Clark Expedition

6. The Coming of the Railroads

7. Early Canals

8. The Industrial Revolution in America

9. Education and Literature before the Civil War

10. Socialism in the United States before the Civil War

11. The Oregon Question

12. Great Inventors and their Contributions before the Civil War.

13. Immigration before the Civil War

- B. Write a brief biographical sketch of the persons listed below. Cover primarily those phases of their lives that have a direct relationship to American social, political, or economic development:

1. Henry Clay

2. James Madison

3. Andrew Jackson

4. James Monroe

5. Alexander Hamilton

6. John Marshall

7. Daniel Webster

8. James Polk

9. William Henry Harrison

C. Draw Maps Showing the Following:

1. The United States before and after the Louisiana Purchase.

2. The United States before and after the Mexican War.

D. Read at least one book of American fiction or on the life of a famous American.

UNIT V. SLAVERY AND THE CIVIL WAR (Six weeks)

Introduction. The Civil War was more than a conflict between the North and the South. The issues involved more than states' rights vs. centralization, keeping the union intact, or freeing the slaves in the South. In its larger aspects, the struggle concerned all of mankind, for it was a trial to determine whether one part of the world could forever remain free while another remained slave. The conflict was more than a war. In its ultimate effects it constituted

a revolution—a revolution in man's treatment of man and in the concept of democracy. As far as our own country was concerned, it brought with it the beginning of new social institutions. It initiated the development of a new economic system in the South. It liberated social and political forces that were to affect the history of the country for many years. As far as the rest of the world was concerned, it gave a new meaning to freedom, brotherhood, and the rights of man.

Its immediate effects were not all good. The freeing of the slaves at first was a hardship for the Negroes. They were uneducated and untrained for the freedom that was suddenly thrust upon them. They were unprepared for the liberties and responsibilities that went with citizenship. Some were taken advantage of and mistreated. Nearly all needed help and guidance.

War always leaves scars of bitterness, but it wasn't the war itself that left them in the South. Sherman's march through Georgia may have caused some, but not as many and as deep, as were found to exist years later. There were things that happened after Lee surrendered, that were far more devastating to the unity and good will between the contestants than the war itself. They were the things done by the shortsightedness and vengefulness of the Northern peace-makers. They were the things done by the war profiteers and the political grafters. However, the South as well as the North had its "scalawags" and "carpetbaggers." The rise of the Ku Klux Klan and "Jim Crowism" was more than mere revenge.

"The evil that men do lives after them," but so does the good. Not all the peacemakers were of the carpet-bagger and scalawag type. There were the "Abraham Lincolns" and the "Andrew Johnsons." Even though their will did not altogether prevail, it left its imprint. It served as the real binding force between the North and the South, in spite of the other forces to the contrary.

II. Specific Understandings to be Derived. (One Week)

A. An understanding of the inter-relationship between the social, political, and economic factors that contributed to the continuance of slavery in a country that

was dedicated to the principle that "all men are created equal."

- B. An understanding of the social and economic relationship that existed between the slaves and their Southern masters.
- C. An understanding of why the North was opposed to slavery.
- D. Pupil Activities.

Read in your textbook the pages dealing with the above topic.

Textbooks—William Guitteau; C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley; S. E. Forman.

E. Answer the following questions:

1. How did slavery originate in the New World?
2. Why was the South better suited for the development and growth of slavery than the North?
3. What provisions did the Constitution make regarding slave representation?
4. Under what conditions did the Negroes and "poor whites" live?
5. What privileges (social, economic, political) were denied to the Negro?
6. In what ways did the household slave fare better than the slave who worked in the fields?
7. What is a Negro spiritual? What does it reveal about the Negro's philosophy of life at the time?
9. How did the South justify the institution of slavery?

III. Specific Understandings to be Derived. (Two weeks)

A. An understanding of the difficulties that faced the leaders of our government in reconciling the differences that arose between the slave-holding and the non-slave-holding classes.

B. A lasting understanding of the evils of slavery.

C. Pupil Activities

Read in your textbook the pages dealing with the above topic.

Textbooks—William Guitteau; C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley; S. E. Forman.

D. Answer the following questions:

1. Give the provisions of the Missouri Compromise of 1820.
2. Give the provisions of the Compromise of 1850.

3. In what way did the Kansas-Nebraska Bill affect the slavery issue?
4. What was the Dred Scott Decision?
5. Who were the abolitionists?
6. Give a brief description of the role played by the following persons in connection with the slavery conflict:
 - (1) Daniel Webster
 - (2) Henry Clay
 - (3) John C. Calhoun
 - (4) John Brown
 - (5) Harriet Beecher Stowe
 - (6) David Wilmot
 - (7) Stephen A. Douglas
 - (8) Jefferson Davis
 - (9) William Seward
7. What was the Underground Railway?
8. List the Presidents of the United States between 1820-1860.
9. Give the names of the political parties in existence at the time of the Compromise of 1850.
10. Describe the importance of the Lincoln-Douglas debates.
11. Why is slavery wrong? What is the difference between economic and political slavery?

IV. *Specific Understandings to be Derived.*
(Two weeks)

- A. An understanding of the nature of the crisis caused by the secession, and of its effect on the future development of the country.
- B. An understanding of the life philosophy of Abraham Lincoln and of its influence on American life during and after the war.
- C. Pupil Activities
Read in your textbook the pages dealing with the above topic.
Textbooks—William Guitteau; C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley; S. F. Forman.
- D. Answer the following questions:
 1. How did Lincoln's views of secession differ from those of President Buchanan's?
 2. Describe the following highlights of the war:
 - (1) The Firing on Fort Sumter
 - (2) The Blockade of the South
 - (3) The Battle of Antietam
 - (4) The Battle of Gettysburg
 - (5) The Battle of Vicksburg
 - (6) The "Monitor" and the "Merrimac"
 - (7) Sherman's March through Georgia
 - (8) The Fall of Richmond
 3. Give a brief description of the roles played by the following persons during the course of the war:
 - (1) Abraham Lincoln
 - (2) Ulysses S. Grant
 - (3) Robert E. Lee
 - (4) Stonewall Jackson
 - (5) Jefferson Davis
 - (6) George McClellan
 - (7) William Sherman
 - (8) Clara Barton
 4. Which side was better equipped to fight a long war? Why?
 5. What was the Emancipation Proclamation?
 6. Describe the social and economic conditions of the North and South during the war.
 7. How did the North finance the war?
 8. What notable accomplishments were made by women during the war?

V. *Specific Understandings to be Derived.*
(One-two weeks)

- A. An appreciation of the practicability of Lincoln's idealism in dealing with the South and a realization that had his methods prevailed the country might have been spared the bitterness that followed the war.
- B. An Understanding of the social and economic forces that conditioned the future development of the South and the Negro, and of their effect upon the whole nation.
- C. Pupil Activities
Read in your textbook the pages dealing with the above topic.
Textbooks—William Guitteau; C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley; S. F. Forman.
- D. Answer the following questions:
 1. In what ways did the reconstruction plan of Congress differ from those of Lincoln and Johnson?

2. What loss did the country suffer by Lincoln's assassination?
3. Describe the work of the Freedman's Bureau.
4. What were the provisions of the Fourteenth Amendment regarding citizenship, voting, and holding office in the federal government?
5. Describe the series of incidents that led to the impeachment of Andrew Johnson.
6. In what way did the failure to convict Johnson serve the best interests of the country?
7. Describe briefly the action taken by the South in connection with the following.
 - (1) Black Codes
 - (2) Ku Klux Klan
 - (3) Voting
8. Who were the "carpet baggers" and the "scalawags?"
9. Explain the phrase "The Solid South."
10. How did the South change industrially as a result of the Civil War?

VI. Home and Library Work.

- A. Write a brief summary on the following topics: (Follow same procedure as before)
 1. The Development of the Republican Party
 2. Social Life before and during the Civil War
 3. Education before and during the Civil War
 4. Newspapers before and during the Civil War
- B. Write a five-hundred word biographical sketch of any of the persons studied in connection with this unit.
- C. Draw a map showing the following:
 1. The slave states
 2. The free states
 3. Important cities and bodies of water
- D. Read a book—fiction or biography—on the life and times of one of the men studied in this unit.

(Part III will appear in the October issue of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*.)

Visual and Other Aids

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In visual education, as in many other fields, solutions to problems are often interdependent. Some cannot be solved separately. Yet we find so many supposed solutions with but the single viewpoint. The freshman youngster, who, in answer to a direct question, would often reply: "Well — it depends!" perhaps had a more significant approach than his teachers realized.

One such pair of problems is found in relation to the school use of radio. Problem One is: "How can we make full use of the available broadcasts, when our classroom schedule is so rigid?" Problem Two, in this case, is simply a problem of equipment needs. It might be stated thus: "Of what value to the whole school is the instantaneous recording machine?" More for curiosity than other good reasons, these two questions were asked, at separate intervals, of administrators, teachers and students. The gen-

eral trend of replies to Problem One, ran from the administrative "The schedule can't be changed" to the student view of "Let's revise the whole program" and included such teacher comment as "Why bother?"

Problem Two failed to excite more than passing interest for all sections save for the teachers of speech classes who of course were interested in "mirrophone" type of equipment, where one to three minutes of classroom talks could be immediately and conveniently reproduced. Even this response was, of course, an evasion. For the question involved total school use rather than purely departmental.

Each problem, considered separately, offers no quick solution, but as a "paired" problem a solution is immediately apparent, and with a wide range of cost involved. The size of the school and also the size of the school budget will

determine the complexity of the mechanical set-up. But now that recording equipment is available in both "disc" and "magnetic" types—and within the realm of school finance—there is no real obstacle to having a social studies class that meets at 2:15 listen to a broadcast that is aired at 9:00 A.M. For those who are confounded by the mechanical difficulties of disc recording, great hopes should be found in the release of new equipment by the Pierce Wire Recording Company. The significant point of this new model 55-A, lies in the fact that the replaceable spools contain some 11,000 feet of stainless steel wire, which gives 66 minutes of continuous recording and play-back. Automatic timing arrangements make it easy to record any fraction of that time, or to erase any portion of a complete program and to re-record in the exact location desired. For those interested in additional details, such information may be had by writing to Sunray Films, Inc., Film Building, Cleveland, Ohio.

A second set of "paired" problems of far greater importance and much deeper implication is found in the utilization of silent films. Problem One might be stated: "Of what value to the modern school is the silent motion picture?" The second problem is one that has confronted those interested in teaching aids since the advent of the first "still" projection. It is: "Shall the class be taken to the film or should the film go to the class?" Thinking of each question separately, a variety of quick answers come to mind, but with the combination in view, the freshman youngster comes back into the picture with his pointed comment: "Well—it depends!"

In the first cast of "paired" problems, no direct connection was immediately noted, but in the replies to Problem One, the second quite soon made its appearance. A strong stand on the question was voiced by Cora B. Workman, a sixth grade teacher:

Since our students are familiar with expert acting, large scale productions and the technicolor of the commercial movie, the silent film is just another school drudgery to be endured but not enjoyed.

Keep in mind that this response was in answer to Problem One—not to the "paired" problem. Problem Two now edges into the picture in the

reply of Virginia Foster, a fourth grade teacher:

I have observed that good silent films often help to create a lively classroom discussion in the field of the social studies. They serve as a medium for stimulating the imagination. Since the child sees but does not hear, he must do some type of research that will explain the picture to him. A repetition of the silent film following the class discussion would have much value.

By implication at least, Problem Two is included, but the reply of Gladys Ricketts, a fifth grade teacher, almost removes the first problem from the scene:

Silent films are of value in a classroom situation, where the group can discuss them while they are in progress, but are not at all appealing in an auditorium situation where several groups must be considered.

Perhaps the comment of a high school girl, a senior, would add to the growing list:

The silent type movie could be beneficial but the students have a definite tendency to talk to each other rather than look at the show because there is not enough action to hold their interest. This is especially true of the younger students.

In spite of the typical "senior" attitude represented in the last line, the comment is valuable when it is considered that for the particular girl, *all* educational movies are viewed in the regular school auditorium.

From the trend of the preceding paragraphs it would seem that an "easy" solution had been found for Problem Two—that in all cases the film should be taken to the classroom. This is not always so, for the development of any audio-visual program depends a great deal on the "ease" with which any teacher may arrange to have a film presented. Thus in the early stages, it is most convenient for the teacher to have the projection in the classroom at the specified class time. However, "ease" or convenience is a two edged sword, and as the whole teaching aids program grows, the burden of transporting equipment from the storage location to the many classrooms increases by leaps and bounds. At this point it becomes less and less "convenient" to arrange for film showings, and the total program suffers. So, once again our freshman says—"It depends!"

It becomes all too evident that some sort of compromise is essential, and two middle-of-the-road factors would be subject matter and film classification (sound or silent). A very broad statement could be made to the effect that longer run pictures and those with general informative backgrounds might best be arranged for the departmental convenience. From our sampling of reaction it is all too plain that the short film and the silent film had best make the trip to the classroom.

At least one film company (Filmsets, 1956 N. Seminary Avenue, Chicago) has banked on the value of silent film in the classroom, as indicated by the title "Filmsets—Classroom Teaching Films." These Filmsets—48 in number—are all 200 feet silent pictures. The Filmset Company lists three requirements for every scene filmed: (1) accuracy and authority, (2) photographic quality, and (3) correlation with lesson theme.

The Filmset unit has two main divisions—Economic, and Regional Geography. The Economic group lists 22 films, with such titles as Old Fashioned Farm, A City Home, Milk, Fish, Coffee, Rubber, Textiles, Petroleum, Transportation and Mass Production. The Regional subjects include: Canada, Alaska and Eskimos, Atlantic Coast, Rocky Mountains, Amazon, British Isles, Lowlands of Europe, Russia, Mediterranean Basin, North Africa, Desert, China, Japan, Pacific Islands and Australia. Each unit is complete within itself, so that units may be assembled in whatever order the teacher desires.

There is little, if any, overlapping of scenes in the various units. The industrial units are made, as far as possible, without any reference to locale, just as the regional units refer to products but do not expand upon them when such products are covered by units of their own. For example, the cotton story in the unit on Growing Fibers is just as pertinent to the study of Egypt as it is to the study of the Atlantic Coast, Mississippi Basin, India or China. Hence, in the units devoted to the study of these regions, cotton is merely indicated as adapted to those environments, without the duplication of any part of the full story of cotton as developed in Growing Fibers. In this way the units supplement each other to make a more complete presentation than could possibly be accomplished by any single unit.

Tremendous help to the teacher is given by means of a 112-page teacher's manual with some 600 picked illustrations from the actual films. Each two-page spread lists the objectives, the approach, the film Outline and finally the lesson story. The editors were wise in that they did not attempt to dictate the teaching method, but they did provide material sufficient for almost any procedure.

From the company's descriptive material, one can see that such a silent film might well find complete utilization in the actual classroom, and from practical experience we can also note that such films in an auditorium would be most dismal and as the sixth grade teacher said, ". . . endured, but not enjoyed."

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

THE PROBLEM OF A FAIR WAGE

The basic question at issue in all modern labor disputes is that of wages. Labor unions exist primarily as a means of enabling their members to obtain higher wages than they could get individually. Disputes about closed shops, jurisdictional rights, union work rules and all the other matters which are frequently

mentioned as questions at issue merely exist because of the unions' struggle to increase their power, and hence ultimately to secure better wages for their members.

The problem of the proportion of an employer's income which should rightly belong to his workers has been, and still remains, the most difficult in the whole field of labor re-

lations. Generally, it has been settled by force rather than by principle or logic; the wage scale is determined by the respective pressures which employer and union can bring to bear on each other at a given time. The recent wave of strikes which have been so costly to the whole nation has re-emphasized the inefficiency and injustice of this method of solving the problem; like war in international disputes, it settles nothing except the immediate issue.

In *Harper's* for March, Peter F. Drucker of Bennington College presented an excellent study of the wage problem. He pointed out that one of the fundamental differences in wage disputes arise because workers are interested only in their total income, while management is concerned solely with the wage per unit of production. The employer must sell these units, and the cost of production, including wages, determines his profit. The worker, on the other hand, is concerned with obtaining a total annual income high enough to meet his needs. Whether this comes from a high piece-rate on a few units, or a lower rate on more units is not of much importance. These diverging interests are at the bottom of most wage issues.

Mr. Drucker suggested the annual wage plan as one that might satisfy the needs of both sides. Under it a worker would be guaranteed a certain percentage of his normal annual income, even in bad times; in good times he would earn the full amount. In either case he would be protected against total unemployment and loss of income, and could be sure of a minimum budget or more. However, there are serious difficulties in the way of a general adoption of such a plan, as Mr. Drucker explained. He said that in any case it did not provide an answer to the question of what should determine the worker's fair percentage of the total cost of a unit of production.

The article is largely devoted to an examination of a principle for determining wages which has gained popularity with many labor leaders and industrialists. This is the general theory that wages should be determined by productive efficiency. Coupled with an annual wage guarantee, and some means of protecting the interests of the majority who are not employed in large industries, Mr. Drucker believes

that productive efficiency may provide a principle upon which wage questions may be worked out without resort to strikes and other un-economic methods.

THE MENACE OF ATOMIC POWER

In *The Saturday Review of Literature* for March 2, Lewis Mumford had one of the most stirring articles which has yet appeared on the problem of atomic power. It is entitled "Gentlemen: You are Mad!" The writer sounds his keynote in the opening sentences: "We in America are living among madmen. Madmen govern our affairs in the name of order and security. . . . They have been carrying through a series of acts which will lead eventually to the destruction of mankind, under the solemn conviction that they are normal responsible people, living sane lives, and working for reasonable ends." Mr. Mumford's charge is that our leaders, and those of other nations, have accepted the terrifying discovery of atomic weapons as merely another, though greater, plaything in the game of power politics; that they are discussing it, struggling for it, fighting over it, and experimenting with it as they would with any other material advantage which one nation might use to coerce another. His vivid and striking protest is directed against the whole conception of a world of pygmies tentatively prodding and poking a sleeping monster that, once aroused, could destroy them all. He is demanding that we come to our senses and abandon the whole concept of atomic energy as a destructive force, before we reach the point where it passes beyond our control.

Mr. Mumford has written a plea which will unquestionably be widely read and reprinted because it expresses in masterly prose what many people must feel. Many have been disquieted to read in their newspapers that governments are looking at the discovery of atomic power as a future military resource. We have read of spy rings; we have seen plans go forward to conduct an experiment on the effect of atomic bombing on naval vessels; we read of the arguments concerning the sharing of the secret of atomic bombs. We are told with grim certainty that already atomic weapons are being produced that will dwarf those which fell on Japan. Surely no nation wishes to use these against another. Yet no nation dares leave it-

self at the mercy of another. Unless the whole world can agree to abandon this uncontrollable force as a means of warfare, and each nation be convinced that the others are sincere, the future of civilization is very dark.

The United States has the special responsibility for leading the way in this, for we assumed the responsibility of first making use of atomic weapons. Such an experiment as that proposed to be carried out on Bikini Atoll is unpardonable unless we as a people are prepared to admit our willingness to follow where it leads. It can mean only one thing—that as a nation we are planning to make atomic weapons a part of our military program and that we hope to be more skilled in their use than anyone else. The experiment can have no other justification. Many will agree with Mr. Mumford that in that direction madness lies.

OUR FAILURE IN GERMANY

Comment was made in this department a few months ago concerning the increasing number of articles condemning the failure of military government in Germany. There has been no cessation of these reports; rather the evidence has increased that we are making a great blunder in our efforts to re-mold Germany into a democratic pattern. In a blunt criticism of AMG in *The New Republic* for March 4, Irving Wolfson told some of the reasons why the program has broken down. Two of the principal weaknesses, he said, were the lack of planning and the lack of competent personnel. The failure to develop positive and forceful plans is particularly apparent in the field of education. It has been generally agreed that the only real hope of reforming the German world outlook lies in a long-range program of democratic education. Yet, Mr. Wolfson asserted, in most parts of the occupational territory there has been little effort to begin such a program or even to supervise the type of education which is actually going on.

Strong pressure has been put on AMG officials by German leaders—especially of the Church—to retain individuals in the public positions they held under Hitler. This is particularly true of teachers, since there is naturally a serious shortage of trained people in this field. The pressure is frequently too much for those in AMG who are essentially time-servers,

and chiefly interested in getting through their assignments with the minimum of fuss and trouble.

Often the most efficient teachers, policemen, foremen and technicians are former Nazis, but it is easier to let them do the work in which they are skilled than to replace them with less efficient but more right-minded persons. Mr. Wolfson drew a sorry picture of American efficiency. We have undertaken a specific job—to re-make Germany into a trustworthy nation, and to wipe out every vestige of the Nazi regime and ideals. Perhaps it is an impossible job, but nine months is not long enough to prove it. And until it is proved, our reputation as a competent and sincere people is at stake. From all the evidence, neither those on the job in Germany nor their superiors at home can be commended for what is being done.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

On February 21, Town Meeting of the Air discussed the question: "Are Parents or Society Responsible for Juvenile Crime?" The four speakers on the subject were Dorothy Thompson, Attorney-General Tom Clark, Father Flanagan, and Anthropologist Ethel Alpenfels. Condensations of their speeches appeared in *The Rotarian* for April. What they had to say is of interest to everyone who realizes what is happening. Mr. Clark provided a background of fact. He said that 15 per cent of all the murders in this country are committed by persons under 21; about 21 per cent of all crime is due to this same group. Over half of all thefts, especially car thefts, are committed by minors. Between 1939 and 1945, arrests of girls under 18 increased 198 per cent; arrests of boys under 18 for *major* crimes have increased over 50 per cent. These are frightening facts. Mr. Clark went on to describe steps that were taken by the Department of Justice toward rehabilitation of youthful offenders against Federal laws, and toward assisting local governments who have to deal with the major part of juvenile crime.

Father Flanagan laid the blame for these conditions equally on the home and on society. He does not believe that any child is inherently bad, but behaves only as bad home conditions, bad training, and bad environment compel him.

Most juvenile delinquents come either from broken or degraded homes, where the example is vicious; or from so-called "good" homes where parental indulgence and selfish neglect leave the child a prey to bad influences outside. "Punishing our boys and girls will not eliminate the cause of their mistakes. A stronger padlock does not make a better boy . . . Let us stop blaming juveniles for their mistakes and put the responsibility where it belongs — on parents and society."

Miss Alpenfels laid the blame for most juvenile unrest on the fact that so many young people feel that they do not belong to the group. If they belong to a minority race, a foreign-born family, or an under-privileged class, they are constantly impressed with the fact that they are regarded as inferior. The urge for recognition seeks an outlet, which is too often an undesirable one. The only solution is the eradication of racial, religious and economic snobbishness from our social relationships.

Dorothy Thompson said that the greatest cause of juvenile crime is emotional insecurity — the loss of faith and pride in one's parents and the resulting urge to find compensation in the world outside. A youth who is deprived of close companionship and good guidance at home comes more easily under the evil influences which abound in our society.

One of the most immediate causes for juvenile delinquency is post-war unemployment among those boys and girls who left school to get war jobs. This was the subject of an article by Edith M. Stern in *Woman's Home Companion* for March. There is little place in a normal industrial situation for youths under 20, especially for those who have not completed their high school education. The many thousands who left school for easy jobs and good pay are now without work or training. Many of them will never return to school. They constitute a problem which must be solved unless the juvenile crime rate is to go still higher.

FAILURES IN HIGH SCHOOL

The problem of pupil failure, or retardation, in high school is one which troubles every person connected with educational progress. In the old days it scarcely constituted a problem, since only a small minority of boys and girls went to high school. The secondary school was

generally regarded as a training ground for college, and those unable to meet its requirements were excluded or dropped without qualms. The modern concept recognizes that society must educate its young people at least to the age of 16 or 18. The high school, therefore, has had to adjust itself to accommodate all comers, regardless of intelligence, ambition or future plans. It is no longer exclusive; it is now an extension of the elementary school. The problem of failures becomes a basic one.

Ideally, in a school for all, there should be no failures. The school program should recognize that among all children of a given age there must be a wide diversity of ability and interest; it should provide for meeting these. The school should not require children to adjust themselves to a fixed program and fail those who cannot achieve it. In actual practice, this flexibility is very difficult to bring about for many reasons. Some schools, blessed with better facilities or wiser leadership than others, approach it to a point where retardation and failures are reduced to a very small degree. Most schools are likely to regard the problem as insoluble and seek to keep failures down to some "reasonable" degree, such as 10 per cent. Yet any thoughtful person realizes that every pupil in that 10 per cent. actually represents a failure on the part of the educational system, rather than on the part of the pupil.

The schools are like a machine which we have designed to shape a finished product from the raw material—the pupil population. We know what the raw material is; by tests and analysis we know its composition, its abilities and its potentialities. We know that it will assay a certain degree of fineness, year in and year out, no more and no less. Yet with this knowledge at hand, we have designed a machine which is only 90 per cent. efficient and wastes the rest of the material. In an industrial machine, this would be unthinkable. It should be equally unacceptable to the designers of educational machinery.

In the March number of the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, there was an article by George E. Carrothers on "Why Do High School Pupils Fail?" It was interesting in many ways. It cited a survey made in a Michigan high school in which the faculty listed its judgment of the ten chief

reasons for pupil failure. The striking fact about the ten reasons which were considered most important was that every one of them was the fault of the pupil: laziness, lack of ability, assignments not prepared, lack of interest, and so on. In other words, the entire blame for the lack of a finished and satisfactory product was laid on the material, not on the machine, although the machine was capable of change and the material was not.

In many schools it is the custom to ask teachers to turn in lists of failing pupils at the end of a semester, together with the reason why each pupil failed. Unless the present writer's experience is unusual, the reasons given will invariably be similar to those mentioned above. The fault is always the pupil's. Almost never will there be such statements as: lack of time to give individual help, inappropriateness of subject matter, improper guidance, or lack of teacher stimulation. No doubt such explanations would be too much to expect, yet in most cases of failure they would be nearer the root of the trouble.

Mr. Carrothers presented his own list of ten reasons for pupil failures, which is in marked contrast to that submitted by the faculty group. He laid the blame where, in the long run, it belongs—on those who control, administer, and teach the school, and on the community which supports it. His discussion should cause thought among many of us who have come to feel that 10 per cent (or any other figure) are pre-ordained to fail through their own short-comings.

In the same issue of the *Bulletin* there appeared a series of tables showing the percentage of failures in the junior and senior high schools of Washington, D. C., for 1945. They were classified by subject fields, and showed an over-all percentage of failure of about 5 per cent.

An interesting account of how one Minneapolis junior high school has faced the failure problem with considerable success appeared in *The Clearing House* for February. L. E. Leipold described the process by which homogeneous grouping and curriculum modification were worked out with the result at the end of the first year that failures amounted to less than one-half of one per cent.

NOTES

The February issue of *Economic Outlook*, published by the CIO, contained an interesting four-page chart showing the organization machinery and financial practices for each CIO union. It was quite complete and should answer questions which many people have wanted to know about union government.

World Organization, by Hans Aufrecht, is an annotated bibliography of books, international conference documents, pamphlets, directories of agencies, and bibliographical dealings with the subject. Copies may be obtained from the Woodrow Wilson Memorial Library, Woodrow Wilson House, 45 East 65th St., New York 21, N. Y.

Educational Comics, Inc., 225 Lafayette St., New York is publishing a series of "comic" magazines with the general title, *Picture Stories from American History*. Part I dealt with the period of discovery and exploration, and Part II, with colonization and independence. The term "comic magazine" is of course a misnomer, as it is with so many similar publications of a non-educational sort. *Picture Stories*, a more accurate term, utilizes the familiar format to present history to elementary school children. It is competently done; whether the similarity of appearance can make it a strong competitor to Superman, only time can tell.

Union Records (119 W. 46th St., New York), a new company in this field, has issued as its first publication an album containing Franklin D. Roosevelt's 1933 inaugural address, on vinylite records. The price is \$5.00.

The sixth annual conference for teachers of the social sciences in high schools and junior colleges will be held at the University of Chicago on July 24, 25 and 26. The theme of the conference is "Post-war Problems of Student and Teacher." Teachers, curriculum directors, and school administrators are invited to attend. Copies of the program may be secured by writing to Earl S. Johnson, Box 51, Social Science Building, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Ill.

Alfred W. Stern, trustee of the Illinois State Historical Library, is offering prizes for outstanding essays on Illinois or Illinoisans in the Civil War. Winning essays will be published in the *Journal of the Illinois State Historical So-*

society. Mr. Stern is giving \$100 for the first prize and \$50 for the second. Authors of other articles deemed satisfactory for publication in the *Journal* will be paid \$25 by the Society. The essays should contain approximately 5,000 words. The subject may be any phase of the Civil War era in Illinois, or any activity, military or civilian, of natives of Illinois at that time. The articles will be judged by three lead-

ing historians. The judges will make their selections on the basis of originality of research, contribution to the knowledge of Civil War history, and readability. Inquiries concerning the contest should be addressed to J. Monaghan, Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield, Illinois. All entries must be submitted by December 31, 1946.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

The Complete Writings of Thomas Paine, Collected and edited by Philip S. Foner. New York: The Citadel Press, 1945. 2 vols. Pp. lxiii, 632; xvi, 1520. \$6.00.

For several years we have been granting belated recognition to the greatness of Thomas Paine, and to his contributions to freedom and democracy. Election to New York University's Hall of Fame, in 1943, marked a deserved reversal of popular opinion since the days when he was called a "filthy little atheist." Dr. Foner's two volumes—well over 2,000 pages—come at an advantageous time. The American people have been prepared, by the popular works of Howard Fast and W. E. Woodward, for a scholarly reappraisal of Paine's life and writings. These volumes provide such a reappraisal and should be "definitive" for a good many years.

Volume One contains Dr. Foner's sixty-page biographical essay—"Thomas Paine: World Citizen and Democrat," a useful, chronological table of Paine's writings, and a very brief bibliography. The bulk of the volume is made up of Paine's longer writings: "Common Sense"; "The American Crisis"; "Rights of Man"; "The Age of Reason"; and "Agrarian Justice." The second volume contains more than 1,500 pages. It is too bad that the publishers did not divide this and make it a three volume set—containing political and economic essays, theological dissertations, scientific papers, public letters, and much personal correspondence.

The first volume is arranged chronologically, the second topically to enable the reader to follow Paine's ideas on various issues. Within each

topical division, however, the presentation is chronological. Cross references are very helpful. The editing is superior. Dr. Foner is a careful scholar; his notes add much to the value of the volume. His biographical essay is excellent. For a reasonably brief, and yet complete, appraisal of Paine's position in American history and of his world-wide contribution to freedom and democracy, this essay is perhaps the finest thing in print.

The set, of course, is not without faults. Objective as is Dr. Foner, there is nevertheless evidenced something of the defensive attitude which most proponents of Paine have, understandably enough, adopted. Actually, an acceptance of Paine's faults and weaknesses would not obscure his strength and greatness. Another generation may witness a greater willingness to appraise the faults as well as the strength of this greatest of pamphleteers.

While the set contains much material not previously in print, one would expect omissions. For instance, in 1800 Edmund Blunt of Newburyport printed a "Eulogy on the Life of General George Washington" which, it is claimed, was written by Paine and presented at that town on January 2nd. Since Paine was still in France, the eulogy must have been read by someone else. This reviewer has never seen a copy, and could not vouch for its authenticity. Yet if it is authentic, it would add much interest to the Washington-Paine controversy, and would seem worthy of investigation. Other Paine items will probably come to light with the years.

These faults and omissions are very minor.

This two-volume set is a distinctive addition to the literature of American history. Scholars and students of the period will wish to have these three volumes at hand for ready reference. Teachers will find these writings of value in understanding the last quarter of the eighteenth century. Many superior students will delight in browsing through these pages; average students could use the set in connection with definite assignments. Teachers striving for an understanding of the historical method can make good use of Dr. Foner's excellent editing.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

New York City

Sargent S. Prentiss: Whig Orator of the Old South. By Dallas C. Dickey. Baton Rouge, La.: Louisiana State University Press, 1945. Pp. 422. \$4.00.

Sargent S. Prentiss was one of America's greatest orators in his short life span of forty-two years. He made a national reputation as an oratorical giant. He was an outstanding lawyer and able politician.

Born in Portland, Maine, Prentiss moved to Mississippi in 1827. He became one of the leading lawyers of Vicksburg. He was one of the dominant figures of the Whig Party of the Old South and made definite contributions to the party campaigns of 1840, 1844, and 1848. He was a member of congress during the stormy session of Van Buren's administration. In 1845, Prentiss left Mississippi to enter a law firm in New Orleans, La. He made his home in New Orleans until his death in 1850.

Prentiss belonged to the Golden Age of American eloquence. He lived in the era of Webster, Clay, Calvin, John Quincy Adams. Prentiss loved to speak. Audiences stimulated him, and he could hold them spellbound for hours.

Dallas C. Dickey, professor of speech at Louisiana State University, has made an exhaustive study of the available records of Sargent Prentiss. His biography will be appreciated by those interested in oratory and politics of the Old South.

GEORGE F. GRAY

Woodrow Wilson Junior High School
Port Arthur, Texas

Job Guide: A Handbook of Official Information About Employment Opportunities in Lead-

ing Industries. Edited by Sydney H. Kasper. Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1945. Pp. 193. Cloth, \$2.50; Paper, \$2.00.

The chief criticism made of books on vocations is the lack of specific information of practical value to the reader. This criticism, however, cannot be levied against *Job Guide*. Patterned somewhat after the excellent occupational summaries issued by the United States Employment Service, this book analyzes some twenty general occupational fields, including air transportation, chemicals, construction, iron and steel, lumber, meat packing, plastics, radio, synthetic rubber, and others.

The analysis of each field covers, where applicable, a discussion of the nature of the jobs, the qualifications, employment terms and conditions, hiring of women and Negroes, union organization, apprenticeship programs, occupational hazards, and post-war and long-term trends in the industry.

It is this last concept of post-war and long-term trends which will probably be most helpful to the counsellor or student seeking advice. A sample of the significant conclusions presented are these: Industries such as aviation, glass production, plastics, and trucking will show only a limited post-war expansion with few additional opportunities. Better prospects exist in industries such as lumbering, construction, meat packing, and coal mining, where a definite expansion is expected to take place. Industries which will show a retraction and loss of employment, as compared to the war period, will include aluminum, chemicals, iron and steel, merchant marine, radio and radar equipment, and railroads. It is information of this type which makes the book so valuable.

Since this volume is in the nature of a ready reference handbook, the information is necessarily brief, sometimes too brief. However, this lack is compensated for by the excellent list of sources and materials for further reading which are given at the end of every chapter. The counsellor of students or veterans, as well as the individual seeking to help himself, will be certain to find these summary analyses full of valuable information.

LEO LITZKY

Central High School
Newark, New Jersey

Industry in America. By Charles H. Seaver.

New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946. Pp. vii, 335. \$1.60.

The book prepared under the editorship of Professor S. P. McCutchen of the School of Education, New York University, "deals with a phase of modern life which contains many problems almost as varied in their specific statement as there are persons concerned." The editor's forward to the pupils states that probably the most important question of the twentieth century is that which concerns the proper relation of business to government. The growth of American industry, its range and variety, have created problems that require understanding by American students.

A number of questions are presented for consideration:

Does the industrial corporation, as a form of organization, meet a need of modern society? What need? How?

Is the management of a corporation responsible to anybody but its stockholders? Or to anybody but its stockholders and employees?

Should government regulate labor unions as it regulates corporations? What differences in regulation are necessary? Should unions be required to incorporate?

The background of British and American industry is given. This is followed by "Modern Industry Grows Up, 1840-1890." This section discusses early corporate ventures, improvements of communication, the rise of factories, and social and political changes brought by industrial development.

Major consideration is given to the industrial development in the period from 1890 to the present. The highlights of technological progress, inventions, and corporate organization in transportation, communication, mineral production, and manufacturing are included. This is followed by the relationship of government to business and of state and national regulation of industry.

Each chapter ends with a list of suggested activities and at the end of the book are well selected references and readings. The grade level is senior high school.

The book is highly recommended by the reviewer for teachers who desire reading material on the part that industry has played in

America and who want to develop a better understanding of the problems of adjusting human institutions and human relations in industrial America.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Edited by R. T. SOLIS-COHEN
Philadelphia, Pa.

Institute of International Education. Twenty-Sixth Annual Report of the Director. New York: Institute of International Education, 1945. Pp. 90. 10 cents.

This Report describes the broad scope of the work of the Institute. It assists students from Latin America, Europe and Asia. It offers opportunities to American colleges by having distinguished scholars visit their campuses and by teacher exchanges. It contributes to the American University Union in Europe and to the Junior Year Abroad. The pamphlet concludes with a list of the publications of the Institute.

Some Educational Problems in Peru. By Max H. Minano-Garcia. The University of Texas Institute of Latin-American Studies, Occasional Series I. Austin: The University of Texas Press, 1945. Pp. 70.

Two papers are presented in this pamphlet with both English translation and Spanish text. The first is devoted to Educational Work to Incorporate the Rural Population of Peru into the Full Functions of the National Life. The second describes public education in Peru. The three aims of Peruvian educational reform are democratization of education, placing of the school at the service of work, and obliterations of illiteracy.

Improved Family Living Through Improved Housing. Prepared by the Committee of Consultants on Housing for the Family. New York: The Woman's Foundation, 1945. Pp. 28.

Improved housing presupposes sound consumer education and an understanding of the relation of good housing to functional requirements such as privacy, recreation etc.

The leaflet is prefaced by some pertinent questions which refer to income, housing arrangements, utilization of community services, etc.

*"Timely . . . thought-provoking . . .
with numerous effective illustrations"*

ECONOMICS FOR OUR TIMES

By Augustus H. Smith

Formerly Chairman, Department of Social Studies
High School of Commerce, Springfield, Massachusetts

SECONDARY EDUCATION says of this book: "This timely text really does provide the student with a survey of the principles of economics and of some of the major economic trends of the modern world. . . . A chapter discussing future economic trends is indeed thought-provoking. The book is directed toward the consumer in its treatment of subject matter. Its numerous effective illustrations will help the 'consumers' or students in their understanding of economic problems." *Write for further information.*

McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, INC.

330 WEST 42ND STREET

NEW YORK 18, N. Y.

Behind the Scenes. Personality Series. By Sterling Fisher. New York: National Broadcasting Company, 1945. Unpaged.

The author is the Assistant Public Service Counselor and Director of the N.B.C. University of the Air. It was he who was responsible for a series of discussions of American foreign policy which he created as a feature of the N.B.C. University of the Air. For several years he served as radio consultant of the Department of State in Washington.

Nutrition in Review. Report of the New York State Joint Legislation Committee on Nutrition. Legislative Document, 1945, No. 49. Illustrated. Pp. 191. Free.

This report discusses some of the more important aspects of food and nutrition with an eye on world events. Analyses are made of the European food situation and of food shortages and black markets.

The nutritive values of food, nutritional deficiencies, and education in nutrition are represented in the discussion.

The report reviews the important demonstration in fluorine control of dental caries, the uses of frozen food lockers, the awakened public interest in nutrition, the effect of advertising on food and nutrition, and vegetarianism and nutrition.

Motor Vehicle Transportation in American Life. Analysis by Norman G. Shidle and Teaching Aids by Robert I. Adriance. Problems in American Life Unit No. 22. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals and National Council for the Social Studies Departments of the National Education Association, 1945. Pp. 55. 30 cents.

This booklet stresses the economic, social, and safety factors of motor vehicle transportation for American youth.

Wings Over America. By John Stuart. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 114. New York: Public Affairs Committee, 1946. Pp. 31. 10 cents.

The author is deeply concerned with the future of air power in America. He warns that American air supremacy may be dissipated because of inadequate research and lack of planning for civilian flying. He fears that the production of civilian planes will be insufficient to maintain an aircraft industry adequate for national security. A sufficient number of properly equipped and strategically placed airports are necessary to afford the individual owner of an airplane a variety of terminals, air parks, air harbors and landing strips throughout the country.

Safer Highway Travel. 21 Teachers Report Classroom Activities. Washington 6, D.C.: The National Commission on Safety Education, National Education Association, 1945. Illustrated. Unpagéd. This publication is for sale at the following scale of prices: Single copies, 15 cents; 2-9 copies, 10 per cent reduction; 10-99 copies, 25 per cent reduction, 100 or more copies, 33 1/3 per cent reduction.

This bulletin aims to use social studies in order to stimulate the interest of elementary school pupils in traffic safety.

A Report on the Office of Censorship. U. S. Government Historical Reports on War Administration. Office of Censorship. Series I. Washington, D. C., 1945. Pp. 54.

The Committee on Records of War Administration has encouraged Federal Agencies participating in the war program to record their administrative experiences.

The first such history to be published is *A Report on the Office of Censorship*.

Censorship has two separate objectives. The first is to deprive the enemy of information and of tangibles such as funds and commodities which he can use against our armies and our navies. The second is to collect intelligence of many kinds which can be used against the enemy.

Censorship is wide in scope, including that of the mails, cables, the radio and the press. The last two are particularly important because they involve a hard won freedom. Their censorship ought to be voluntary. This, in spite of its weakness, can be fully as effective as the compulsory systems of Britain and Canada,

where many flagrant violations have gone unpunished because public opinion would not support punishment.

Europe's Homeless Millions. By Fred K. Hoehler. Foreign Policy Association Headline Series. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1946. Illustrated. Pp. 96. 25 cents.

The author directs attention to the dilemma of Europe's displaced persons and to the shocking discrepancy between noble sentiments expressed by responsible statesmen and the grossly inadequate actions of most governments.

Some phases of the refugee problem discussed in this leaflet include the care of displaced children, the moral restoration of refugees, the Harrison Report and the disposition of unrepatriables.

Building Your Marriage. By Evenlyn Millis Duvall. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 113. New York: The Public Affairs Committee, 1946. Pp. 31. 10 cents.

Indicating the biological, economic and social problems involved in building a lasting marriage, the author suggests experts who may be able to help perplexed newlyweds.

Women's Opportunities and Responsibilities in Citizenship. Prepared by the Committee of Consultants on Citizenship in the Home. New York: The Woman's Foundation, 10 East 40th Street, New York, 1945. Pp. 22.

Good citizenship depends upon the intelligent interest, knowledge, understanding and action of the individual. Although the pamphlet speaks of the responsibilities of the staff side, the same objectives of good citizenship apply to all, irrespective of sex.

Strengthening the Congress. By Robert Heller. National Planning Association, Planning Pamphlet No. 39, 1945. Pp. 41. 25 cents.

The American people are often likely to blame the whole Congress for its slow, cumbersome action. Congress has many diligent, intelligent, and honest members who are seriously handicapped by the present committee structure in both houses, the inadequacy of their staffs, and many other practices which have been inherited from the last century without change.

Congress itself—by creating a Joint Committee on the Organization of Congress—has admitted the need for modernization of its present machinery. This Joint Committee has been preparing over-all recommendations, although various proposals for piecemeal legislation are being presented to Congress.

The Report of the National Planning Association, however, in its 14 recommendations emphasizes the necessity for a complete reorganization plan.

The leaflet points out that it is the people's business to make Congress more efficient and to achieve party responsibility.

Congress at Work. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1945. Illustrated. Revised edition, 32 Pp. 15 cents.

This pamphlet is an illustrated account of how our laws are made and of the men who make them.

We Can Have Better Schools. By Maxwell S. Stewart. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 112. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1946. Pp. 30. 10 cents.

This pamphlet emphasizes the need for improving American educational methods. One way of meeting this need is by learning better techniques from the Army special courses where men learned to read and write in a very short time.

Our Schools: Annual Report of the Profession to the Public. By the Executive Secretary of the National Education Association of the United States. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1945. Pp. 19.

This Report is concerned with the education of veterans, military training in peacetime, physical fitness, education and the minority groups, using G. I. methods of teaching in the schools. It also devotes some space to educational administration.

Gainfully Employed Women and the Home. By the Committee on Consultants on Gainfully Employed Women and the Home. New York: The Woman's Foundation, 10 East Fortieth Street, New York, August, 1945. Pp. 15.

Coming in June...

The Consumer's Economic Life

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The Consumer's Economic Life will be off the press next month. This brand-new text in consumer education:

- Pictures clearly the role of consumption in our economic system.
- Emphasizes the fundamental factor that consuming is everyone's business.
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The Consumer's Economic Life is a well-balanced presentation of the interests of business and the interests of the consumer. It deals in principles—practical, common-sense principles that the consumer can use easily and effectively in buying and using goods and services. It features correlated skill-building problems in consumer mathematics.

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Investigate *The Consumer's Economic Life* for your consumer education, consumer buying, consumer economics, and similar courses. Write our nearest office today for further information.

THE GREGG PUBLISHING CO.

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This pamphlet presents a charter for action in behalf of gainfully employed women. They should have aid and opportunities to develop as individuals, as homemakers, as members of the community, and as gainfully employed workers.

William Penn Speaks. Compiled by Leonard S. Kenworthy. Fairmount, Indiana: Leonard S. Kenworthy, 1945. Pp. 8. 5 cents; \$1.50 pr 50; \$2.75 per hundred.

One of a series of pamphlets which present excerpts from the works of great men. Others in the series include *Leo Tolstoy Speaks*, *Kahlil Gibran Speaks*, *Goethe Speaks*, etc.

Labor Savings in American Industry, 1899-1939. By Solomon Fabricant. Occasional Paper 23. New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, 1945. Pp. 52. 50 cents.

A study in the reduction of workers per unit of product in certain selected industries.

United Nations Organization: A Handbook of the UNO. Prepared by the *Current Events* Editors of the American Education Press. New York: Charles E. Merrill Company, 1946. Pp. 32. Illustrated.

An excellently-prepared *Handbook* giving information about the background and interpretation of the UNO. The Charter and the meanings of the terms used in the Charter are included.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

This Our World: A Pageant of World History. By Arthur C. Bining, Arthur C. Howland and Richard H. Shryock. New York: Newson and Company, 1946. Pp. xix, 672. Illustrated. \$2.20.

A new secondary school textbook in world history. Excellent organization and illustrations.

Lincoln and the South. By J. G. Randall. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1946. Pp. 161. \$1.50.

Four lectures on the subject of Lincoln's knowledge and understanding of the South.

Endless Horizons. By Vannevar Bush. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1946. Pp. 182. \$2.50.

A collection of papers, reports, and articles by a leader in the field of science, with an introduction by Dr. Frank B. Jewett.

Australia the New Customer: A Commercial and Economic Guide for American Business men. By Howard Daniel and Minnie Belle. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1946. Pp. 269. \$4.50.

The book gives information for an understanding of Australia as a market and analyzes the opportunities for American business with Australia.

Industrial Relations and the Social Order. By Wilbert E. Moore. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946. Pp. 555. \$4.00.

A sociological approach to the study of employer-employee relationships based largely on the author's experience in teaching a course in "Industrial Sociology."

The Great Pacific Victory: From the Solomons to Tokyo. By Gilbert Cant. New York: The John Day Company, 1946. Pp. 422. \$3.50.

A narrative of World War II naval operations in the Pacific that begins with a description of the situation February, 1943, and continues until the final victory.

Intellectual Trends in Latin America. The University of Texas Institute of Latin-American Studies. Austin, Texas: The University of Texas Press, 1945. Pp. 148. Paper cover.

Papers read at a conference sponsored by the Institute of Latin-American Studies of the University of Texas.

Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work: Selected Papers, Seventy-Second Annual Meeting, 1945. New York: Published for the National Conference of Social Work by Columbia University Press, 1945. Pp. 407. \$5.00.

Selected papers from the Annual Meeting of 1945.